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## REVIEW OF POLITICS.

IN reply to an invitation to attend a meeting of the Midland Farmers' Club, Mr. Bright has written a characteristic letter on the Game Laws. That the question stands in need of discussion, and that the present state of the law is unsatisfactory may be freely admitted; but it seems to us equally clear that no useful result will be attained by taking up the subject in the tone and temper displayed by the hon. member for Birmingham. A quarter of a century ago, a description of shooting as the "semi-barbarous amusement of a class" might have found favour with all but a very small section of the public. But in the present day this amusement is so extensively shared in by the moderately wealthy classes, in both town and country, that it is idle to rail against it as if it were inherently wrong or brutal. It is, moreover, obvious that the remedy proposed by the hon. member would be futile, unless legislation were pushed to a point utterly inconsistent with our English ideas of freedom of contract. There would be no use in giving the tenant farmers the property in the game upon their land unless the landlord were absolutely prohibited from reserving it to himself by special stipulations in the lease or agreement. But we cannot think that any Parliament we are likely to see in our days would pass such an act, or that, if it were passed, it could be carried out. So long as the game on an estate is practically a valuable commodity, and so long as there are more farmers wanting farms than there are farms for them, the owner of the soil will be able to make what terms he pleases with respect to the preservation or destruction of the winged or four-footed objects of his sport. And so long as men are fond of sport, and are willing to pay for it, it is quite certain that they will take means to secure it. Nor is it easy to see why they should not, now that the removal of the protective duties on the importation of corn has blunted the force of the argument founded on the consequent diminution in the supply of food for man. It may be desirable, and we think it is, to get rid of the old theories on which the game law is founded, and to recognise game as what it is—property. There is certainly great room for improvement in the mode in which these laws are administered. But it would be perfectly intolerable, and utterly absurd, that any one should be allowed to range at pleasure over another man's land in pursuit of game. If the present Game Laws were abolished a stringent and summary law of trespass would become absolutely necessary. And although we by no means say that this would not be the best means of meeting the exigencies of the case, it is clear that it would militate nearly as strongly as the present system against those who, like Mr. Bright, desire to see game disappear out of the land.

For our own part we believe that almost all the evils of the present state of things, and almost the whole difficulty of legislation on the subject, spring from the excessive preservation to which the unsportsmanlike practice of battue shooting has given rise. If a landlord were content to find on his farms a sufficient head of game for "a good day's shooting," as that expression used to be understood, he would hear no complaints from his tenants, nor would he find it a very hard task to check poaching.

It is not often that we have occasion to refer to the acts or the despatches of a Spanish Minister in terms of favourable mention. We were, therefore, all the more surprised and gratified by the clever and sensible note which a recent communication from Count Mensdorff has elicited from Señor Bermudez de Castro. The Count seems to have thought fit to remonstrate against the recent recognition of Italy by the Government of Queen Isabella, on the ground that it was a departure from the policy which Austria and Spain had hitherto pursued in common, and that it tended to embarrass her most Catholic Majesty in discharging the sacred duty of protecting the sovereign pontiff. In reply, the señor civilly, but pointedly, observes that both Austria and Spain were regulated in their Italian policy by a regard to their own interests, and that, while the former had very good grounds for looking with jealousy upon the new kingdom, the latter had none. The recognition of accomplished facts is no new thing in the history of either country, because both in 1830 and in 1848 the two Powers recognised the facts accomplished in France after the fall of the two branches of the House of Bourbon. Nay, coming down to later times—and this is the unkindest cut of all—"it must not be forgotten that the Italian monarchy has been recognised by all Europe with but few exceptions, and that Austria herself has sanctioned the incorporation with the ancient kingdom of Piedmont of one of the finest provinces of the new kingdom of Italy." The señor professes himself utterly unable to see how the recognition of Victor Emmanuel will prevent the Government of Spain from doing its best to uphold the temporal sovereignty; and as the Viennese statesman had taken occasion to express his alarm lest the recent concession to the revolutionary principles now triumphant in Italy should shake the throne of the Queen, the Spanish Minister reminds him with finely-polished sarcasm that the constitutional throne of his mistress was never for a moment in danger, while so many despotic thrones tottered or fell in 1848. And in order that there may be no mistake as to the application of the last remark, he intimates his satisfaction that Austria has adopted the institutions which, in his opinion, have worked so satisfactorily in Spain, and his conviction that this step on the part of the Emperor Francis Joseph can only tend



to augment the friendship between the two countries. Count Mensdorff has certainly "caught a Tartar" in selecting Señor Castro as the object of his admonitions; and if it prove nothing else, the despatch to which we have been referring shows that the Spanish Government numbers amongst its members a Minister capable of wielding the diplomatic pen both with spirit and tact.

So far as we can gather from the information which reaches us, the temper of the Hungarians continues highly favourable to an amicable arrangement with Austria. It is true that some of the leaders of the ultra-national party are claiming for their country a completely independent Government, and seem bent on demanding a separate Hungarian Ministry not only for internal affairs, but even for foreign affairs, war, and finance. But these views do not find any countenance from von Deak or von Eötvös, the leaders of the moderate liberal party. The former, who is probably the most influential man in Hungary, has recently issued an address emphatically counselling a calm and dispassionate consideration of the proposals which will be made to the Diet in the name of Francis Joseph as King of Hungary; and the latter, in speaking the other day to his constituents at Buda, told them that while the separate existence of Hungary as a free and independent country must be zealously guarded, and while care must be taken that she has as great a share as the other parts of the monarchy in the management of the general affairs of the empire, it must also be borne in mind that she is united—that she is indissolubly united to Austria, and that the common interests of the inhabitants of the two countries render it necessary that they should live together in peace and harmony. If there be any serious meaning in these words, and we cannot doubt it, they must point to some arrangement under which Hungary, while securing a separate domestic administration would consent to a common administration for the whole empire, so far as war, foreign affairs, and customs duties are concerned. No doubt the details of such an arrangement would present difficulties, but these will probably not be insurmountable if both parties are really earnestly desirous to establish a good understanding. In the mean time it is satisfactory to know that there is some prospect of the removal of one obstacle to a cordial union between Hungary and Austria. That obstacle is the highly protective or prohibitive systems of the latter country, which tell with destructive force against the most important interests of the former. The newly-appointed Minister of Commerce at Vienna has, however, taken occasion, on entering office, to declare that "it is necessary for Austria that all commerce should be free, and that labour should receive a better remuneration. All obstacles which oppose the free development of material interests ought therefore to be removed." We trust that this may prove to be a correct exposition of the principles on which the Imperial Government is prepared to act. Nor shall we have long to wait for a practical test of their sincerity as free-traders, since we are informed that the negotiations for a commercial treaty between England and Austria have been once more resumed.

The unhappy condition of the French press is strikingly illustrated by the fate which has befallen the *Gazette de France* within the last few days. The recent circular of the Minister of the Interior, enjoining the prefects to read the newspapers and correct their misrepresentations by *communiqués*, has not been lost on his subordinates. The *Gazette* was favoured with a couple of these communications on the same morning; and in a moment of pardonable irritation, the editor (who was, no doubt, smarting under an *avertissement* which he had received on the previous day, for copying a letter that had appeared in a provincial paper) was provoked into remarking that he would never again notice these Government missives by way of reply. M. de la Vallette seems to have imagined that a covert sneer, or an intimation of contempt, lurked in this apparently harmless observation. He would, no doubt, have been glad that the editor should submit patiently to official correction; but he could not bear him to say that he would do so in a manner which might be understood to imply that belief did not accompany silence. Accordingly, a second *avertissement* was launched at the head of the offending journal, which can now be suppressed at any moment, unless its proprietors should succeed in the appeal which they intend making to the Council of State. As M. de la Vallette was once an ardent Liberal, we can quite understand his excessive zeal

in the cause of authority, now that he has become a Minister; but it is not so easy to understand why the Emperor should countenance or permit such purely vexatious and childish acts of oppression.

Those who flattered themselves that the Government of the United States would quietly allow their absurd claims against England to sink into oblivion, are likely to be disappointed. Mr. Seward has issued an official notification calling upon the citizens having claims against foreign governments to forward statements of the same to the State departments; and, according to a semi-official gloss which has been put upon this document, it is expressly intended to include demands for indemnification in respect of the damage done by the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers, and by the raiders from Canada. We can, therefore, hardly doubt that it is intended to make their claims the subject of immediate, and, we fear, of irritating controversy. Had there been any desire to smoothe matters over, the Secretary would have contented himself with receiving such demands as might have been transmitted to him, and would not have resorted to the indecent device of stimulating claims against a friendly Government. It is possible, indeed, that nothing more is meant than to divert the attention of the people from their domestic dissensions by a paper war with England on a subject which excites intense and bitter feeling. But it is neither statesmanlike nor safe to play with edge-tools of this kind; and we would gladly have seen any discussion in reference to these claims postponed to a time when it was likely to be conducted with more calmness and temper than can be looked for at present. We see that in some quarters a hope has been expressed that the expedition of her Majesty's ship *Devastation*, in search of the privateer—or, as she may now be very properly called, the pirate—*Shenandoah*, will be successful. But, although we quite concur in the propriety of that step, which was no doubt taken in accordance with orders from home, we fear that it is more likely to be accepted as an acknowledgment of wrong on our part, than as a genuine and spontaneous act of friendship. The domestic news received by the mails is not very important. The late Confederate States appear to be doing all they can to show that they accept unreservedly the result of the civil war, and that they are sincere in their loyalty to the restored Union. But, in spite of the strength which President Johnson derives from this source, it is obvious that a considerable section of the Northern people are dissatisfied with the tenderness and generosity he displays towards the South. They may not care much for the negro, but he is a convenient instrument for humiliating his late masters. It is therefore probable that the President's policy of reconstruction will be vigorously opposed—in the interest of the said negro, of course—in the next Congress. At present, however, there is no great reason to doubt that the Democrats and moderate Republicans will beat the Abolitionists and Radicals at the forthcoming elections.

#### ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

THE publication in the *Gazette* of Tuesday last, of the correspondence between Mr. Adams and Earl Russell in reference to the depredations of the Confederate cruisers, is an event of which the gravity can scarcely be over-estimated. It evidently indicates an impression on the part of her Majesty's Government that the question is likely to become one of a practical and urgent importance; nor can we be mistaken in supposing that these documents are now given to the world in order to prepare the public mind for diplomatic complications which are seen to be immediately impending. Indeed, after the recent notification issued by Mr. Seward, calling for claims, on the part of citizens of the United States, against foreign Governments, there is no room for hoping that we may be spared an irritating and dangerous controversy; and under these circumstances, we think her Majesty's Government have acted wisely in at once taking the country into their confidence by a full disclosure of the position which they have assumed, and of the arguments by which they have justified their policy. We do not think they will have any occasion to regret making this appeal to the good sense, the spirit, and the patriotism of the nation. There are some remarks in Earl Russell's notes which perhaps might have been better omitted; there are some arguments of questionable application or of doubtful strength, but upon the whole these documents are eminently



worthy of a British Minister, both in dignity of tone and in solidity of reasoning. In these respects they contrast very favourably with the letters of Mr. Adams, which are marked by the querulousness, and disfigured by the sophistry which have so disagreeably characterized the recent diplomatic documents of the United States.

Although the principal subject of the correspondence is the responsibility of the British Government for the captures made by the *Alabama*, *Shenandoah*, and other vessels, fitted out in our ports, a large portion of it is occupied by a controversy as to the propriety of our recognising the belligerent rights of the South. It is true that France adopted the same course at the same time, and that if it implied any unfriendliness to the United States, that unfriendliness must have existed equally on the part of both the Western Powers. But, in spite of this obvious fact, Mr. Adams and his Government insist upon laying what they consider to be the mischievous consequences of this act at the door of England alone. We are quite ready to bear the responsibility of our acts; but we cannot help seeing, in the different tone which is adopted towards our own and towards the French Government in respect of a course identically the same, an unmistakable indication of an unfriendly spirit and of a determination to dwell, as a cause of complaint with England, upon that which is easily passed over when done by our neighbours. Except for the light which it casts on the *animus* of the United States' Government and people, the discussion of this subject would now possess merely an historical interest. As it is, however, we are compelled to regard it as both significant and threatening. For that reason, and for that alone, we shall notice briefly the argument on both sides as it is presented to us in this correspondence. The gravamen of Mr. Adams's complaint is, that we did not wait to recognise the belligerent rights of the South until they had actually a navy afloat, and until some of their armed vessels had arrived in our ports. Such a step on our part was, he contends, not only precipitate and unprecedented, but it had the effect of creating these parties belligerents after the recognition, instead of merely acknowledging an existing fact. To this Earl Russell replies that we recognised the belligerent rights of the Confederates because the United States had already virtually done so. Directly the Government of Washington proclaimed the blockade of the ports of seven States of the Union, and thus interrupted the trade of neutrals, they did, in effect, declare a state of war, because they assumed to exercise a right which does not exist in time of peace. The moment this was done, England, and other maritime Powers, were reduced to the alternative of imitating the United States and treating the South as a belligerent, or of refusing to recognise the blockade. If they had taken the latter course, war with the North must have inevitably followed. They, therefore, adopted the former, which was evidently the most prudent and the most consonant with the actual facts of the case. Whether this recognition of the South as a belligerent was late or early does not in the slightest degree matter, if this argument be sound; because, whether late or early, it did not take place one moment before it was forced upon us by the United States. One would have thought, therefore, that against this argument Mr. Adams would have directed all the force of his logic. The contrary is, however, the fact. He leaves it untouched; he not only does not mention it, but he does not attempt to mention it. Instead of telling us how we could have reconciled recognition of a blockade with non-recognition of the belligerency of the Power blockaded, he confines himself to historical *résumés*, from which he draws the deduction that we were far more hasty in acknowledging the warlike States of rebels than was France in the case of our revolted American colonies, or than the United States in the case of the revolted colonies of Spain and Portugal. That may or may not be a true representation of the facts. It is for a neutral to decide whether its own interests and a due regard to its own position require it to take this step. The circumstances of each case vary. They now render prompt action necessary; and now make delay permissible or prudent. It is idle to attempt to dispose of the argument of the British Government, founded on the facts as they existed in 1861, by a reference to what was done by somebody else at a different time and under other exigencies. No doubt, if Mr. Adams had not been restrained by considerations of decency, he could have encountered the English Minister in a manner which would have been thought entirely successful in the United States, although nowhere else. Earl Russell correctly indicated the position which has been tacitly assumed all along upon the other side of the Atlantic, and which underlies all the reasoning of Mr. Seward and Mr. Adams, in the sarcastic observation that "What you contend for, I imagine,

both as to the commencement of the war and its close, is, that the United States of America had a full right to exercise all the rights of belligerents, but that Great Britain had no just claim to exercise any of the rights of neutrals." "This position," he adds, "Great Britain can never permit;" and, until it be established, our recognition of the belligerent rights of the South can never be successfully assailed.

With regard to the other, and in itself the more important subject of correspondence, it is by no means so easy to present the views of the two statesmen in a succinct form. A good deal of space is inevitably occupied by the discussion of facts, into which we cannot now enter even in the most cursory manner; and, indeed, we doubt whether any one would thank us for reopening the old controversy whether our Government did or did not do thier best to prevent the departure of the *Alabama* or the *Shenandoah* from our shores. Most Englishmen are of opinion that they did; and that in stopping the departure of the steam-rans they afforded the strongest proof of their good faith and earnestness in fulfilling the duties of neutrality—by an exercise of power for which they would have sought in vain the sanction of a court or a jury. Mr. Adams, on the other hand, maintains in substance, that it is immaterial to inquire into their good faith and honesty; that they were bound, as an international duty, to detect and frustrate the schemes of the parties engaged in fitting out Confederate cruisers; and that as they failed in this duty, England must pay in the shape of damages the penalty of their neglect. It is remarkable that for the latter position Mr. Adams does not cite a single authority; and yet it by no means follows, as a matter of course, that because the equipment of a belligerent cruiser in a neutral port may furnish just ground of complaint, it entails upon the neutral the responsibility of making good whatever injury she may do. Nothing is more certain, as Earl Russell shows, than that in a case precisely similar to the present, the United States declined to acknowledge any liability of the kind. In the years 1818-19 the Portuguese Minister at Washington had occasion to complain that privateers were constantly fitted out in the ports of the United States for the purpose of cruising against the mercantile marine of Portugal, then at war with her revolted South American colonies. In consequence of his representations the Act known as "the American Foreign Enlistment Act" was passed; but it wholly failed to attain its object. Renewed remonstrances were made to Mr. Adams, then the United States' Minister for Foreign Affairs. A demand for compensation was subsequently preferred. But this was at once met by a peremptory refusal. Mr. Adams maintained that all his Government were bound to do was to use all the means in their power to prevent the fitting out of cruisers, and to carry faithfully into execution the laws enacted to preserve inviolate the neutral and pacific obligations of the Union. But if, notwithstanding all they could do, vessels still got out to sea and committed ravages on the Portuguese commerce, he absolutely refused to admit any liability "to indemnify individual foreigners for losses by captures over which the United States have neither control nor jurisdiction." In this view he was followed by succeeding Secretaries down to Mr. Clayton, who closed the correspondence in 1850 by a peremptory refusal to listen to any more arguments on the subject. The Mr. Adams of to-day is evidently not insensible to the force of the precedent created by the Mr. Adams of 1818. He endeavours unsuccessfully to weaken its force by pointing out that, while the United States amended their law in 1818, in order to enable them to perform their duties as neutrals, the Government of Lord Palmerston refused to do anything of the kind in 1861-2. But we have already seen that this amendment of the American law was practically inefficient; and Mr. Adams does not state any ground for supposing that any increased stringency of our Foreign Enlistment Act could possibly have prevented the success of such schemes as that by which the *Shenandoah* was first cleared out of a British port as an unarmed vessel, and was afterwards converted at sea into an armed cruiser. The difficulty with which our Government had to contend throughout was want of evidence, which would not have been got over by a law conferring increased powers of seizure. The only law which, so far as we can see, would have met Mr. Adams's wishes, would have been one enabling—perhaps even requiring—the English Government to detain any vessel which might excite the suspicions of the American Minister. No neutral is, however, bound either to pass such a law or to act in its spirit. Every Government has a right to demand that it shall be supplied with reasonable grounds of action before it is called upon to interfere with its own subjects. If it turns a deaf ear to evidence which is offered to it; if it refuses to act when sufficient cause is shown—then indeed it is



highly censurable, and gives just cause for complaint. But that cause of complaint arises not from the want of success, but from the want of *bonâ fides*, on the part of a Government, in preventing the equipment of belligerent cruisers.

Such being the point at issue according to the view of her Majesty's Government, they had not, and indeed could not have much difficulty in dealing with the proposition to refer the whole matter to arbitration. They would not consent to ask a foreign State whether they had acted with good faith and honesty, or whether the law officers of the Crown were justified in declining to advise the detention and seizure of the *Alabama* and other vessels. In the words of Earl Russell, "It appears to her Majesty's Government that neither of these questions could be put to a foreign Government with any regard to the dignity and character of the British Crown and the British nation. Her Majesty's Government are the sole guardians of their own honour." We are quite satisfied that in this determination, and in their equally firmly expressed refusal to render reparation or compensation for the captures made by the *Alabama*, her Majesty's Government will receive the unanimous approval and support of the nation. We are all disposed to cultivate amicable relations with the United States—if they will only allow us. We are quite ready to let bygones be bygones; to forget the abuse with which we have been loaded, and the insults which we have not been spared during the last four years. But the spirit of Englishmen has not sunk so low that they will permit themselves to become the victims of extortion, or will consent to purchase a doubtful peace. If any one had been previously disposed to take such a course, the tone of Mr. Adams's despatches must have shown him its folly. When a diplomatist of experience and judgment is found avowing that his countrymen feel deeply injured because we did not unanimously and hotly espouse the Federal cause, it is tolerably certain that he understates and softens the real state of things. As we should vainly attempt to conciliate the people of the United States by any concessions consistent with our self-respect, the wisest course to take is that which has been adopted by her Majesty's Government. Our best chance of being safely and speedily delivered from an irritating and annoying controversy lies in frankly declaring, and firmly adhering to our resolution.

#### TORPEDO WARFARE.

THE recent display of waterworks at Chatham, under the auspices of the Admiralty, has not been barren of results if it has brought home to the official mind some of the teachings of torpedo warfare. To the scientific world there was little in Mr. Beardslee's performances not known and executed by our own countrymen years ago. Some seven years ago the very same locality witnessed several submarine explosions conducted on the same principle, and by similar means, by Professors Wheatstone and Abel. Since then the science of electricity, on which the explosions depend, has made rapid strides; and Messrs. Wheatstone and Abel, have produced electrical agencies and fuses second to none in the world. The simple fact that 440lb. of powder exploded under water will produce a cascade, a water-spout, or an aqueous tumulus, according to the depth at which it is exploded, had been demonstrated in this country long since, and might have been believed even without practical demonstration. The fact that 150lb. of powder ignited 12 feet beneath the keel of a sloop of war like the *Terpsichore*, would inevitably "break her back," and send her to the bottom, might have been judged from the fact that 112lb. of powder placed 15 feet beneath a vessel at Toulon last June, produced similar results. Little, therefore, has been learnt from the torpedo experiments at Chatham that had not been practically demonstrated before, or that might not have been more effectually learnt from the patient researches of the electrician's laboratory. The whole mystery in this American production appears to be included in the firing apparatus, viz., a magneto-electrical machine, the speciality of which is the use of cast-iron magnets, a galvanized indiarubber insulation for the conducting wire instead of guttapercha, a plumbago fuse, and a very ingenious ebonite connector. The value of these applications as compared with others now in use is a question for the laboratory, and the fact of their being inventions at all is a matter for the Patent Office to settle.

The great value of the Chatham torpedo experiments is that they draw public attention to what is no longer a speculative, but an actual weapon of war. The Americans, North and South, have in the late struggle largely employed this agent, under organized bodies of men set apart for this one duty,

under the name of the Torpedo corps; and the peace leaves the North in possession of both a naval and a military Torpedo corps, who have also charge of the telegraphic and signal departments. Towards the conclusion of the war, the corps were appointed to the charge of particular parts of the coasts and rivers, to adapt the new arm to the requirements of special localities. In the North, an important duty of the Torpedo corps was the removal of submerged obstructions, and the grappling of the enemy's torpedo wires. In a weapon of war of which so little was practically known before the civil war, the American officers, North and South, had to extemporize the modes of application, watch the results of actual trial against the enemy, and amend faults as their experience progressed. It is said that the first conceptions were so crude and innocuous that the Federals picked up unscathed some hundreds of Southern torpedoes. Even at the conclusion of a four years' war, the subject could only be regarded as in its infancy, and beset with difficulties which skill, study, and experience only could decide. Thus it is by no means certain whether the powder receptacle should be a thick iron shell, a glass vessel, a wooden cask, or an indiarubber bag, or whether the shape, the air space, and the enclosing material have any effect whatever on the destructive powers of a given charge. Then, as to the best means of insuring the consumption of the whole of a large charge of gunpowder before the surrounding water drowns the residue, we know that large guns will only consume a certain amount of powder, and that the remainder is thrown out of the bore unused, the quantity thus wasted varying with the delaying effect of the weight of shot placed outside it, and with the more or less instantaneousness of the ignition. Now, in the torpedo, if the charge be large, it is imperative that the ignition be carried as instantaneously as possible through the whole mass, otherwise much of the charge may be drowned on the bursting of the casing. This may be effected by compressing the gunpowder, by using very fine grained powder, or by employing a number of fuses in different parts of the charge and igniting them all simultaneously. This difficulty will most probably be solved eventually by the substitution of gun-cotton, a material which ignites with a very much greater rapidity than gunpowder.

To secure ignition at all after long submersion and under the influences of tidal currents, wind, waves, seaweed, and other disturbances, it is generally conceded that electricity applied under conditions which will enable the operator to test, at any time, the reliability of the fuses is the best agent; but there are circumstances requiring the substitution of mechanical agency to effect the same purpose. The best kind of electricity to be employed is in itself a vexed question, each having its peculiar value. Thus the voltaic, the frictional, and the magneto-electrical apparatus, have each their own advantages; the requirement being that volume and power shall be united in the generating machine employed. When these varying elements are practically decided, then comes the great difficulty of all, which may be known as "putting the salt on the bird's tail." As a mere "scarecrow" the torpedo will always be an invaluable arm of defensive warfare. But when we want to put it into active operation certain difficulties meet us. It could not have escaped those present at Chatham on the 4th instant, that unless a vessel was nearly vertically over the explosion no vital injury would have ensued; but how are we to discover when the advancing enemy is in the required position? In the river operations of the American civil war this was easily discovered; the waters were narrow, and the torpedoes were usually placed at the bends, so that cross bearings could be easily obtained. We shall, however, be required to employ ours in the open spaces covering the entrance to our roadsteads, harbours, and rivers, at a considerable distance from the operator. In such cases there exists no means of rapidly determining to a few feet the exact spot covered by the hostile ship. Here we shall require self-acting torpedoes, made so at the will of an operator on shore that he can withdraw the electric current on the approach of a friendly vessel.

But the most serious application of the torpedo, and that which concerns us in this country most intimately, is its employment in offensive warfare. The idea entertained by the American inventor, Mr. Beardslee, of strewing torpedoes in the path of and in view of hostile ships in the open sea, is simply absurd. But Lieut. Cushing, of the United States navy, has shown us, in his destruction of the Confederate ironclad *Albatross*, that such weapons can be successfully used in offensive warfare against a ship at anchor. And there is a report that the Federal monitors and other smaller vessels of war are to be fitted with projecting rods carrying torpedoes, in the manner employed by Lieut. Cushing. Such vessels would



in narrow waters be very dangerous foes, particularly if those waters were at the entrances to their own ports. If it be found, as is now supposed, that a charge of gunpowder which is exploded, say 10 feet under water, will not affect a vessel at a greater distance than 10 feet, but expend all its powers towards the surface of the water, it will follow that any ship of war may carry with safety to herself, projected from her stem 10 feet below the water-line, a spar or iron rod upwards of 10 feet long, bearing a torpedo; and that if she can explode this *within* 10 feet of a hostile ship, that that vessel's minutes are numbered. Such an apparatus fitted to the tug-vessels and other steamers at our several seaports would turn them into locomotive torpedoes, for the defence of their own harbours; and, if fitted to our sea-going mercantile steamships, would save them all the delays of a convoy in war. Such are some of the American "notions" imported into this country. To give them effect, the details still remain to be worked out, and if the Americans conceive it necessary to establish a special bureau for torpedo equipment, and special corps for torpedo, telegraphic, and signal purposes, to devise and work these new weapons of war, we must be prepared to do the same.

Such an addition to the navy estimates is by no means pleasant to contemplate, albeit we are told that this is a most inexpensive mode of warfare, and that the greater part of the apparatus is equally applicable to military mining, and to maintaining telegraphic communication between the several divisions of an army on the march. No doubt many hundred torpedoes, with the requisite apparatus complete, can be provided at the cost of one 300-pounder gun, and that one of these taking effect would do the work of destruction and demoralization far more effectually; but the fact remains for the taxpayer's consideration that by adopting torpedoes we do not therefore require a less number of guns, but that the torpedo corps and their apparatus are to be contemplated as additions to our artillery corps and weapons. Nevertheless, we cannot without danger to the country shut our eyes to what the Americans have done and are doing to constitute the torpedo a distinctive element of maritime war. It is consoling to know that our own electricians and the Royal Engineers have known these things since General Pasley's operations against the *Royal George* at Spithead, and that they did at Chatham seven years ago, by the same means, all that Mr. Beardslee did in the same locality on the 4th October. It remains only for the authorities to listen to their own servants, who have so long since brought the subject before them, and not to wait until war is declared to begin to devise the means, and create the experience necessary to wield this little known arm. In the old naval fight, the first broadside was said to decide the issue of the action; in all future wars the first campaign will have an important bearing on the final results. It is therefore imperative upon us to commence with an equality of weapons.

#### THE RUSSIAN COTTON MANUFACTURE.

THE Russian cotton manufacture is well worth studying, not only on account of its intrinsic importance, but because it is perhaps the most perfect specimen existing of an exotic industry reared, fostered, and developed to a very high pitch under a severely protective and almost prohibitive system. As sovereigns are said to reign by the grace of God, so this manufacture exists by the will of the Czar. No one pretends that if things had gone on in their natural course, it would ever have come into being in a half-civilized, sparsely populated, and essentially agricultural country like Russia. There is as little doubt that after an artificial existence of more than forty years, it would wither like the prophet's gourd at the touch of free trade. It therefore supplies as fair a test as can be found of what protection can and what it cannot do, and furnishes the means of estimating with singular clearness the natural profit and loss of a branch of production carried on under unnatural conditions. In order, however, that we may not be misunderstood, we must commence by making a reservation. The cotton manufacture of Russia which we have described as an "exotic" is that carried on in large mills, and employed in turning out the finer description of fabrics. The spinning of coarse yarns and the weaving of coarse cloths might, and probably would, under any circumstances, flourish as a domestic or village industry. In consequence of the severity of the climate, which only permits of four or five months' labour in the fields, the peasant is compelled to find some occupation for the remaining seven or eight months. Hence there are numerous villages in which the inhabitants have for generations been weavers, tanners, shoe-

makers, locksmiths, cutlers, &c. These occupations are supplementary to, and merely come in aid of, the agricultural labour on which the population mainly rely. And so far as a rude cotton manufacture could exist under similar conditions, it would exist if the market were thrown freely open to the world. To such a case the observations of Mr. Mill in regard to purely domestic manufactures are substantially, if not strictly, applicable. "Domestic manufactures," he says, "cannot, from the very nature of things, require protection, since the subsistence of the labourers being provided from other sources, the price of the product, however much it may be reduced, is nearly all clear gain. If, therefore, the domestic producers retire from the competition, it is never from necessity, but because the product is not worth the labour it costs in the opinion of the best judges, those who enjoy the one and undergo the other."\*

But if there are good reasons why a certain amount of domestic manufacture should flourish in Russia, there are other reasons of a not less cogent character why that, on a large scale, and carried on under strictly commercial conditions, cannot pay, except under a system of protection ruinous to the country. Mr. Lumley, her Majesty's Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg, points them out with great clearness in a very able report, to which we are indebted for our facts and figures. Capital is scarce in Russia; interest is high; and the spinners are compelled to sell their yarns for bills of long date, which, with the high rate of discount, augments generally the price of cotton twist. "To this must be added the great distances and difficulties of transport and communication; the expense of mechanical, chemical, and other agents for manufacture; the high price of iron, of tools, and of every description of mechanism; the increasing expense of fuel, wood as well as coal, and the fact that, in many cases, the manufacturing establishments have been undertaken by amateurs, noblemen of large property, who have been obliged to employ agents, highly paid, but in some cases not to be depended on." Another disadvantage under which the Russian manufacturer labours arises from the fact that, owing to the number of holidays kept by the people, the working year consists only of 294 days. And then, as the navigation is only open for a short period of the year in the Northern ports, while the Southern ports are too far off (especially in the absence of railways) to be made available for importation, the Russian spinner is compelled to supply himself during the summer with a stock of cotton to last the whole year. He has to buy more largely than his rivals; he has to buy at a fixed time, whatever be the state of the market; and while he is often deprived of the power of purchasing when that is favourable to him, he is as often exposed to severe losses by a fall in the price of the heavy stocks of cotton he has to keep on hand. These are a few of the difficulties with which the manufacturer has to contend;—difficulties with which no one in his senses would ever dream of attempting to contend unless he had the protection of a high duty—difficulties the mere enumeration of which is sufficient to show the ruinous folly of attempting to surmount them.

Confining ourselves to the manufacture conducted on a large scale, and under strictly commercial conditions, let us see how the matter stands. This trade virtually dates from 1812, when a highly protective tariff was imposed, the importation of cotton prints being absolutely prohibited, and a duty being imposed on white and dyed cotton tissues equal to from 60 to 100 per cent. of their value. At that time the consumption of cotton goods was greatly on the increase amongst all classes of the population of Russia, and the passing of this tariff led naturally to the establishment both of spinning and weaving machines, and to the diversion of a large amount of capital to these speculations. A further stimulus was given to the manufacture, in 1833, by Count Cancrini, then Minister of Finance, who induced a number of wealthy noblemen to set up mills. But the cotton-spinning industry did not receive its greatest impulse until 1842. Up to that time it had been found difficult to obtain the requisite machinery in consequence of its export from England being forbidden. In the year we have mentioned, however, Sir Robert Peel removed the prohibition, and about the same period the Russian spinners obtained an increase of the protective duty on yarn. Until then there had been a considerable importation of yarn, but henceforth 80 per cent. of that article was home made. By such means the manufacture was so far stimulated that, in 1859, 2,794,054 poods of cotton (the pood is 36 lb.) were imported and consumed. From that year the manufacture has declined, partly owing to the unsettled state of the country caused by the emancipation of the serfs, and partly in consequence of the

\* Principles of Political Economy, Vol. I. p. 80.



American war. When the manufacture was in its most prosperous condition, it was shown by M. Tegoborski that the ratio which the consumption of cotton goods produced in Russia bore to the consumption of cotton goods produced and consumed in other countries was as follows:—

"Compared with Austria, as 10 to 10·6; Zollverein, as 10 to 18·5; France, 10 to 22; England, 10 to 86.

With regard to the total amount of cotton goods consumed, the comparison stood as follows:—

Compared with Austria, as 10 to 18; France as 10 to 35; Zollverein, 10 to 35·3; England, 10 to 83.

The cause of the consumption being so far limited, as even to fall below that of Austria is not far to seek, when it is considered that at the time these calculations were made, the prices of Russian cotton goods, as compared with those of other countries, and especially those of English manufacture, were from 35 to 40 per cent., and for some descriptions of goods, 60 per cent. higher. Taking the twenty-seven years from 1824 to 1850, Mr. Tegoborski, writing in 1853, calculated that the protective duties had cost the consumers a sum of seventeen million silver roubles annually.

It is easy enough to see that Russia would gain, by establishing free trade in cotton goods at the cost of replacing, out of the national funds—and in this case it would only be just to do so—the whole of the capital at present employed in the manufacture. Although at present the consumption of those goods is small, as compared with other countries, it would, under a national system, be very considerable. According to Mr. Lumley, the consumption of cotton per head in Russia ought to be ten or eleven times what it is, and he gives very good reasons for this opinion. He shows that the Russian peasant is not only inclined to use cotton cloth extensively in his dress, but that—especially since the emancipation of the serfs—he has the means of doing so, if he could only obtain it at a moderate price. We will not, however, rely on an estimate of increased consumption which may seem open to the charge of exaggeration. We will only suppose the consumption to be increased to the extent of the cotton consumed by the inhabitants of the Zollverein under a low duty of four silver roubles per pord for every description of manufactured goods—a duty which in Mr. Lumley's opinion would practically leave trade and consumption unfettered. In that case he proves by figures, which we need not inflict upon our readers, that in three years the amount of duty collected would be equal to the repayment of the capital invested in the cotton-mills of Russia (estimated at 50 million silver roubles) and would leave a surplus to the treasury of 19,500,000 silver roubles after the conclusion of the operation. Such would be the gain to the exchequer of the empire; but that is really only a trifle when compared with the enormous gain to the country not only by the reduction of the cost of cotton goods to the consumer, but by the stimulus which would be imparted to the commerce in those articles of raw produce, which Russia would export far more largely if she were willing to take in return the manufactured goods of other countries. The emancipation of the serfs—their conversion into personal proprietors, each owning, under certain conditions, about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  acres of land—has created an immense class whose industry and whose consumption might be increased to an extent which it is difficult to calculate, if they were only allowed "to sell in the dearest and buy in the cheapest market." At present Russia is a prey to financial embarrassment. In spite of the most strenuous efforts the Government finds it impossible to attract the foreign capital requisite for the construction of the railways and other means of communication which are absolutely necessary to develop the resources of the empire. While Russia, under a protective or prohibitive system, remains in a great degree isolated from the rest of Europe, the rest of Europe will continue to regard her with more or less distrust or aversion. A nation which will not trade is naturally suspected of intending to conquer. It may be confidently asserted that all those inconveniences, embarrassments, and evils would disappear under a free-trade policy, of which the most important part would be the admission of cotton goods at a mere revenue duty. For England free trade is a necessity because she is pre-eminently a manufacturing country. For Russia free trade is in the highest degree expedient, because she is pre-eminently an agricultural country. In her own legitimate sphere she, like England in hers, need fear no rival. But the attempt to create an artificial industry like the cotton manufacture can only continue to result, as it has hitherto resulted, in burthening the people, in impoverishing the revenue, and in crippling commerce.

#### MODERN PREACHING.

AMONG the questions considered at the Norwich Church Congress that of "Preaching in its adaptation to the present time," introduced by the Dean of Canterbury, has decidedly most interest for the general community. To some of the assembled clergy certain realistic subjects proved, no doubt, much more attractive; for persons of that character the Rev. Mr. Lee's elaborate paper on Ecclesiastical Vestments, and the Exhibition of Church Furniture and Relics, provided welcome entertainment. Others, whose disposition was more masculine, concerned themselves with the difficulties that have arisen in the adjustment of the relations of Church and State, upon which Sir R. Phillimore read so masterly a paper. But the lay world outside, anxious to find occasion of sympathy with the deliberations of a Congress which establishes the existence of so much earnestness in their sacred business among the clergy, have fastened upon such discussions as that raised by the Dean of Chichester on "The Duty of the Church towards the Home Population," or on the admirable address of Dr. Pusey, or the creditable declarations of English divines of eminence in favour of the essential unity of the English and Irish branches of the National Church, or, as we have said, principally upon the question of questions—the reasons to be assigned for the failure, in a large degree, of Modern Preaching. The painful fact that it does in great part miss its aim was admitted by Dean Alford, by the Rev. Daniel Moore, and by all who spoke upon the matter. It fails, too, with more than one class of society. It is commonly regarded as being distasteful only to an educated section, composed of scientific and literary men, whose minds are often, it is said, of a sceptical turn; but what Mr. Moore called the "homilitical panacea" is less appreciated than might be expected among the simple, considering the general ability and fidelity of the great company of preachers. There could be no more serious inquiry than one into the cause of this failure; for, not to speak of higher evils, it must be plain that a Church could not long remain *national*, whatever its basis or its structure, whose ministers had ceased to exercise the influence over the population which successful preaching secures. Every one's experience makes him aware that the gains of adherents by Dissenting bodies from the Church of England are generally attributable to no preference of the seceders for the bald ritual of the Independent or the Methodist bodies, but to the more attractive character of the preaching common in their pulpits. That preaching, full of faults as it is, cannot by any means be treated as a model. That it contains something, however, which Church preaching wants, and the want of which must forthwith be supplied if the leakage to Dissent is to be stayed, all persons who have examined the case will, we are convinced, allow. What is needed, then, is a style of preaching which shall satisfy the cravings of the humbler portion of the congregation, and at the same time offer no temptation to the scoffing spirit of the sciolists of the day. To meet this double difficulty of his position, which is not, indeed, imposed upon every clergyman, in every parish and pulpit, but which is felt in a greater or less degree by five out of every six preachers, requires surely that they should be persons of great sagacity, a wide knowledge of men, and intelligent acquaintance with the time and its errors, prejudices, and needs, and a flexibility of mind and of manner, which neither the present system of training clergymen in colleges—if training it can be called,—nor the prevailing opinion among their order as to what constitutes a good sermon, is calculated to produce.

The Dean of Canterbury, in freely admitting the too general failure of an ordinance which ought to be one of the highest power, refers it to neglect of special instruction in universities, to the chill formality of written discourses, to the stiffness of the favourite arrangement under *heads*, to inordinate length and tedious amplification, to expletives and fine composition. His recipe for a good sermon is brief and pithy:—"In composing sermons the clergy should ask themselves what was most likely to penetrate the hearts of the hearers and to abide there; and the answer would be, 'Earnest thought expressed in simple words.'" The Rev. Daniel Moore alluded more particularly to the necessity that exists, greater now than formerly, that the preacher should exhibit a thorough acquaintance with the best forms of Christian evidence, and be prepared to satisfy the doubts of the age "by solutions derived from its growing intelligence." The Dean of Canterbury would have discourses made more easy, familiar, touching; Mr. Moore would give the predominance to the intellectual quality, and expect every clergyman to be able to "silence" scepticism arising "from a hasty generalization upon the facts of science." There were



other hints by other speakers, such as that by the Rev. E. H. Bickersteth that "in these times of abounding wealth Christ should be preached as the great example of self-sacrifice;" such, again, as that of Mr. Ryle, who advised his brethren to borrow illustrations from familiar objects. "Apostolic preaching," the sinfulness of "paltering with the message," and the want of wisdom often shown in obstinate and misplaced "controversial preaching," were all adverted to; but the real subject escaped notice almost altogether. It is, to look at the matter practically, the question how the young clergyman of average ability and the slightest experience, is to set about his preparation for the pulpit, so as to render his ministrations most useful to a congregation of ordinary intelligence, containing a large number of persons engaged actively in the business of life, and having little opportunity of learning anything of Divine things but that afforded by the Sunday sermon.

Of course, it may be assumed that such a preacher "knows his Bible." That, the bishop who ordained him should have made sure of. It must be supposed, also, that he is willing to be a diligent student for the pulpit all his days, and that he begins his work with that resolve. He has the qualifications of knowledge, industry, zeal, and in some measure of popular talent. The great question with him is the manner in which he is to use his materials. The Dean of Canterbury says it would be better sometimes to forego the practice of selecting a particular text as a topic. With all respect, we differ from the dignitary. Once abandon the system of treating a text, and we shall have addresses from the pulpit on all manner of secular topics thinly veiled by religious phraseology—discussions of scientific questions, points even of politics, and the temporal concerns of the Church rather than the delivery of the "message." The Bible text keeps the most wandering preacher within certain bounds. But if the Dean had confined his suggestion to the abandonment of the practice of selecting some half-dozen words for a text—words often so plain that a prolix preachment upon them is to darken counsel—we should entirely agree with him. It is utterly impossible that persons of the least degree of intelligence can, with any profit, listen to a merely voluble insistence upon the truth of that which commends itself to the understanding without any aid, and goes to the heart with all the tendency and effect which its simplicity was intended by the inspired writer to insure. A very able man may make one of these golden Scripture sayings the theme of a touching and forcible discourse by bringing the results of varied reading and large experience to its illustration; but in general these texts are simply the starting-points for a rhapsody which, to speak familiarly, goes in at one ear and out at the other.

Much the better method, equally for young and older preachers, would be to choose an entire story from the sacred record, or a branch of an apostolic argument, perhaps an entire paragraph or chapter; and having grasped the whole meaning, and having mastered the accessories of the incident, and gathered the natural or other facts that will elucidate it, and arranged the contrasts with other episodes or reasonings which may serve to widen the interest of the passage, and taken pains to see how it struck a variety of minds by consulting the written works of divines, present the result rather as a teacher's exposition than an orator's speech. There is no reason why such an examination of Scripture, which will be allowed to be the most natural form of preaching away ignorance, should not be brought to a close with an address, "to the heart" in language of a higher tone, and with the earnestness befitting the occasion. To deny to the pulpit the advantage of the eloquence which is itself a gift of God would be to deprive the preacher of an element of natural power which the greatest of apostolic preachers turned frequently to account; but the best basis for exhortation is explanation, and what the audiences of the day long for is instruction—a larger and fuller insight into the scope and purpose of the Scriptures. There is no lack of that general pious sentiment which gains for the preacher a hearing; but the effect of the activity of mind now necessary in every walk of life, and among all ranks in society down to the artizan class, has been to elevate the intellectual over the spiritual, so that the surest way to reach the affections—almost the only way—is to stimulate, convince, and fill the understanding.

To accomplish this, however, the teachers must be of a superior class, and hence the greater necessity than at any time heretofore for, not so much a learned as a properly-educated clergy. The preachers should be taught to preach, in a day when so much is expected from the preacher, and so much is in his power when fitted for his work. This teaching should comprise all the processes of sermon-making, according to the varied plans suitable under varied circumstances. Whether

this teaching should be sought in some modification of the plan of the University, or provided by the Bishops and the reception of it made essential before ordination, are questions not to be lightly dealt with; but it may be asserted with confidence that if steps were taken to secure the required education of candidates for the Ministry, under teachers of preaching qualified in all respects for a post so pre-eminently honourable and difficult, so as to provide for the pulpit really able expounders of the Scriptures, more would be done to re-establish and consolidate the National Church, and to arrest Rationalism on the one hand, and the deplorable ignorance of our town populations on the other, than will ever be accomplished by ultra-ritualism. This preaching should be extempore, without the abuse of silly and irreverent volubility; earnest, without excitement; instructive, without an offensive air of teaching; to the day, without being of the day; and marked by intellectual superiority seen rather in maturity of judgment, breadth of view, and an imperturbable faith, than in the pedantry which too often degrades the pulpit to the level of the professor's chair or the lecturer's rostrum. If this spirit prevailed in our modern preaching, each sermon would fix some truth enduringly in the mind, and be remembered, just as the drift and object of secular speeches are remembered. The clergy would escape the reproach of pouring their words daily into minds as non-receptive as the tub of the Danaides. There might be fewer heads in their sermons, but there would be more in the heads of the people. There might be occasional stumbling for the fit word to convey a thought, but the quick and vigorous conception in the speaker's mind would carry the thought to the mind of the hearer more satisfactorily than the best chosen phrase shaped over the desk, and put with mistaken pains into an artificial place in a written homily.

#### THE DUC DE CADEROUSSE.

THE correspondent of a morning paper, who writes from the head-quarters of fashion, recording the decease of a French nobleman, tells us "he may be said to have lived every day of his life." One would think, at first sight, that this feat was not of so rare or difficult accomplishment as to call for special notice; but on looking at it from a peculiar point of view we shall see that it is not so easily performed. We get a glimpse at the hidden meaning in another sentence, which tells us "that there was scarce a gentleman-like folly of which he was not guilty." "Abandoning diplomacy he flung himself into a certain set, and was the acknowledged leader of the *demi-monde* who always wagered on his mounts, and petted his horses when they came in with their lace-fringed handkerchiefs." According to the opinion of the correspondent whom we quote, this personage (unlike Trajan) never lost a day. He lived the fast life, and though he was obliged to die somewhat in the ordinary run, there was a fast flourish about his departure shown in the manner with which he tossed a legacy to a comedienne. We are informed that the "butterflies stuck to him to the last," from which we may infer that the companions of his little suppers were at his death-bed, and that the lace-fringed handkerchiefs which were waved for his winning horses served to dry the tears which fell for his untimely end. The sort of career in which this creature was distinguished is not entirely unknown to us. A few years since, an English nobleman of completely French habits made a similar disposition of property, and finished his progress in corresponding style. The number of cigars he was possessed of, his rack of billiard cues, and his galliard pictures, were the wonder of Paris for nine days. His posthumous favours also fell in unseemly places. He, too, had a column in the papers from our correspondent, enriched with full-flavoured anecdotes, and notes of wonder at his brilliant career. Then we had that famous marquis, whose head was broken by Norwegian watchmen, who paid innumerable fines to London police magistrates, and who finally wound up in the hunting field, by being killed on the very scene of his greatest triumphs. From what has been given us of the biography of the Duc de Caderousse, he seems to have been the pink of a fast Frenchman. When he came in for his title he had the spending of seven millions of francs. Large as this sum will appear, even when reduced to English money, we are told that two or three years of his Parisian life made such sensible inroads upon it, that a *conseil de famille* was summoned, and the Duc put upon an allowance. This was done under an excellent statute of the Code Napoleon, by which an agent is appointed over the funded property and estates of a confirmed spendthrift, and the *interdit* can only receive the interest, the agent being responsible for the principal. However, there are many ways of procuring money open to a Duc, and Caderousse



does not appear to have been stinted. He gave banquets similar to the festivals of the Borgias. He was the lion of the Jockey Club. Baden-Baden knew him and so did Hombourg. He rode races and won them occasionally, being greeted to the winning-post by the queens of the *demi-monde*. There was, indeed, a *souçon* of hetairism about all his performances. He openly wore the colours of Traviata, and the plume of a soiled dove was one of the highest feathers in his cap. This was his especial gift, the open defiance even of that facile propriety of the Kursaals, which scarcely objects to anything short of what is outrageous. The Duc was the most splendid patron of vice upon the Continent, and fought determinedly for admission for his *protégées* into the ballrooms. His memoirs, with a fancy title, are already threatened. His intrigues, his bets, his extravagance, and his plans for living not only every day, but the most of every night of his life, are to be cooked by some courageous *chêf*, who undertakes the high dishes of French literature. Broken-hearted *grisettes*, distracted *blanchisseuses*, and *lorettes* of every variety will garnish the salmagundi. Probably the humours of the Mabilles will also light up the entertainment, and something in the Morgue, about the middle of the volume, will give occasion for a nice bit of sentiment, with a superabundance of emotion and a great deal of impiety. Then will follow a sketch of England with a sort of willow-plate pattern of the country, and a vivacious account of the poor Sir Smith whose wife is fascinated by the invincible Frenchman. This is usually the style followed in such works, and miserable rubbish as it is it would find purchasers on this side the water. The taste which is hit by "Slap Bang," and which finds itself suited in casinos, apes this kind of thing to the extent of a feebler incapacity. The snob who is both impecunious and vicious, who peddles a guinea in a sporting public-house, whose cigars are cheap, and whose collars are paper, may possess as fine, though undeveloped a talent for dissipation, as a Duc de Caderousse. The degrees between the fast character are narrow enough, and in some respects you might find the cheap-ringed fingers of the lesser dandy close enough to grasp the Jouvin-sheathed hand of the heavier swell. Both are very useless lumber to a community, but one is pitched high enough to be dangerous as an example. A title borne without reproach should be treated with the respect due to an institution which consolidates the well-being of a State; but when a name which carries a part of history with it is stained with a desperate disregard for family or repute, it is only right to protest against the wearer being accepted as a type of the order which he dishonours. The Duc de Caderousse bore the shield of the noble house of Gramont. His ancestors gave Cardinals to the Church, Ministers to the State, and were often the representatives of Royalty to foreign Courts. What shall we say of their descendant? The amiability of writers, who will speak nothing but praise of the dead, has had more than full play in his case, and the believers in fast life may imagine there is an undercurrent in their direction when they find that a leader among them can have as neat a trope dropped upon his coffin, as if he had been a model of virtue and usefulness. The Duc de Caderousse was no hero, and it is well that this should be said. He certainly slew a man in a duel, "whose vanity forced the quarrel on him." We believe he displayed a very opportune ability on that occasion, and that his antagonist had scarce ever held a rapier in his hand before. He detected Garcia—a famous "leg;" but, to discover a swindler requires a system of education and a peculiar experience which society is perfectly content should be limited to persons in a different position from the Duc de Caderousse. It is only charity to suppose that had the Duc lived longer he would have lived better, but a Frenchman who is on for wild oats is, very slow to settle down. When pleasure jades him, he takes for consolation to Voltaire. Our custom of going off at least with a religious decency is not so general on the Continent. There is *le vieux garçon* who haunts the Vaudeville and the Variétés, and who reminds one of that terrible picture reproduced from Plato by Addison, of the ghost who is condemned to walk the scene and occasion of his evil deeds with a desire to commit them again, and a torturing sense of his utter incapacity to do so. There is the *doctrinaire* stage, in which the used-up man becomes a sour-grape philosopher. The tenacity with which an old boy of France will anchor to the earthy things of earth, cannot be paralleled by even our Major Pendennis, or Marquis of Steyne. We hear from a prescient editor that Caderousse reproached himself for his frippery still more than he was blamed by his friends. Perhaps; but Sterne irreverently hints of Solomon that his *vanitas vanitatum* was not enunciated before the great king had previously enjoyed more than a reasonable share of the *vanitas*. The lesson taught by the remorse of a fast man—a feeling which may arise as much from a palled appetite as

a wounded conscience—is not worth to us half as much as he pays for it. The men who are said to point a moral are generally akin to the women who have a history. For both there is often something claimed on account of supposititious qualities which they were never known to show. The tale which might be adorned with the exploits of Ludovic de Caderousse we would not much care to have in circulation, nor can we see that the pet of *Le Sport* and *Figaro* deserves a sympathy, which to bestow wrongly, is to commit a breach of moral trust. Duc de Caderousse-Gramont has already selected his mourners, and however sad his choice, our compassion should be limited to as much pity as may be consistent with a stern disapproval of the life he led, and of the example he furnished.

#### ON GROWING OLD.

THE facts we gave lately respecting the great ages attained by men in ancient and modern times, lead naturally to some consideration of the chances of the present generation in that way, and of the best manner of growing old with advantage to ourselves and benefit to the world around. The first of these questions, namely, the chances of growing old which are before the present generation of young men and women is a very serious one. If we are to credit the statements of our fathers and mothers, there are no young men now such as those who wooed the maidens of thirty and forty years ago, nor any female faces so innocent and lovely, any figures so graceful and active, any constitutions so robust, as those which charmed our fathers and uncles into matrimony. But then a parent of the present day, surrounded by children who go each his own way, and act as if there were no such thing as filial obedience or subordination, is naturally a *laudator temporis acti*; and besides, the half-reproachful declaration of degeneracy in their children may be nothing more than a modified form of the well-known belief that our early schoolfellows were, for the most part, seven feet high. Still, the survivors of the past generation have invincible facts to adduce. They tell us that young ladies of the present day, when they have said farewell to the very first blush of youth, are creatures more or less dependent upon a whole host of little bottles containing tinctures, and essences, and spirits. They say, and experience is on their side, that the teeth of such young persons are devoted to aching, and that constant visits to the dentist for stopping purposes try the nerves of the owners and exhaust the purses of their parents. They quote the headaches, and the faintings, and the enforced daintiness of diet, the neuralgias, and tics, and rheumatisms that afflict the girls of the present age; the nervous disorders that attack every part of the animal system, from the hair under the piece of muslin called by courtesy or irony a bonnet, to the tips of the toes cramped in narrow shoes warranted to let in the damp. They shake their heads ominously over the chances of such women becoming grandmothers and great-grandmothers, and tell us that in forty and fifty years' time there will not be nearly as many charming old ladies as now.

And it is difficult not to believe that they are right. If young people will turn day into night, and night into day, dining at supper-time and breakfasting when nature dines, they must not expect to obtain the same results from the machinery entrusted to their charge as if they supplied it with suitable material. If a steam-engine be fed with sand instead of water, no locomotion can be hoped for. At the time when our mothers were enjoying their beauty-sleep our sisters are dressing for a ball, and the early hours which once saw active housewives rising from their rest see now their jaded daughters creeping into bed with nerves excited beyond the possibility of sleep by hot rooms, and round dances, and brass bands. What effect all this will have upon the next generation it is not difficult to foresee, especially as the men are doing their full share towards laying up an inheritance of weakness to endow their children withal. Late hours in a bad atmosphere—bad physically and morally—will knock up men as well as women, or at least will work harm in their system. Cider-cellars, and coal-holes, and music-halls, combined with the giddy heat and glare of more respectable rooms, make breakfasts now a different sort of thing from what they were not so very many years ago. There is less drinking now, but not less intoxication; for the whirl in which a large number of young men pass a considerable portion of their year is a very evil kind of intoxication. Smoking too—an excellent thing in itself, and in due moderation—has no unmarked effect upon a wretched lad sodden with essential oil of tobacco. The eye-glasses, which were once a fashionable pretence, are now too serious a necessity, and weak-sighted men and women are



becoming vastly more common as the boys and girls born under the effects of the earlier stages of the prevalent demoralization pass out of their first youth. It may be very true that the bills of mortality improve, and insurance companies can grant now more favourable terms than formerly; but then we must consider what an immense effect all our drainage works and experiments and discoveries in surgery and medicine, in ventilation, in diet, in everything that can affect the health of man must have—an effect which not all the efforts of the railway companies, even those most addicted to excursions, could nearly counterbalance without material help from men and women themselves.

But, after all, there is a more serious question than this. Men are all growing older whether they are growing old or not. How are they growing older?—as men should do who may come to be old, or without any preparation for advancing age? There can be nothing more delightful than an old man with vigorous body and well-stored mind; to leave the body of the present generation now out of the question, how about the mind? Private crammers and public schools, competitive examinations and the patronage of great men, may do as they will with the boy, but the man has his own education to conduct, and according as he conducts it so will his mind be in old age, if he lives to reach that period of labour and sorrow. When a certain black sprite called Topsy was examined as to her antecedents, she could come no nearer to a detailed history of the past than, "Spects I grewed." There is all the difference in the world between growing and being brought up. Some men and women—men and women, we mean, from twenty-five to forty—grow, others bring themselves up. It is only those who form the latter class that can hope to come to a respectable and happy old age. Men may "grow" till they are old men, but they have no resources within themselves, no recollections of worthy efforts made and worthy deeds accomplished, no lessons of example or precept to administer to the young people who grow up about their knees. Good counsel is the best service we can do to mankind, and it is the men who have grown old wisely that best give good counsel. There is no fruit so pleasant as that we gather from a tree of our own planting and pruning, and so the satisfaction of drawing upon stores of wisdom they have themselves laid up must be very great for old men. A good conscience, too, is not the testimony only, but also the reward, of a good life; and it is worth while so to live as to enjoy this reward in case old age comes. There is a notable tendency in the present age to live too much from hand to mouth—to satisfy the demands and the cravings of to-day, with perhaps a little thought of to-morrow, but no regard for more distant days. All is hurry and rapid consumption. Our quarterly reviews are much too slow for us; we must have monthlies and weeklies, nay, we even rush now into dailies. How all this will bear the test of time it is not easy to say. Perpetual fever is an unhealthy condition of life. It is difficult to conceive a man who is given up to the mental haste and excitement of the present day, with his brains always at high pressure, and burning in extravagant quantities the limited supply of vital principle allotted to it, arriving at a ripe old age with the wisdom and coolness which make our present premier a fit man to rule half the world, and keep the other half in order. The young men, for instance, whom the free and enlightened are sending up in numbers to Parliament for the first time,—it is a serious question how far they will be really useful and trustworthy now, and how they will ripen. A sound wine mellow with age; a wine of lower quality, in the manufacture of which haste or carelessness has played a part, grows old only to grow worthless. Locke could tell his readers a hundred and fifty years ago and more, what havoc haste and hastiness, and the desire to cover all possible ground, must produce in the understanding. He might have been writing for the young men of our own generation, so applicable to them is the current of his discourse. "In this superficial way," he says, "the mind is capable indeed of more variety of plausible talk, but is not enlarged, as it should be, in knowledge. . . . Men see a little, presume a great deal, and so jump to the conclusion. . . . Another fault, of as ill consequence as this, which proceeds also from laziness with a mixture of vanity, is the skipping from one sort of knowledge to another. Some men's tempers are quickly weary of any one thing. Others, that they may seem universally knowing, get a little smattering in everything. Both these may fill their heads with superficial notions of things, but are very much out of the way of attaining truth or knowledge." (Conduct of the Understanding, § 16, 17, 18.) It is to be feared that the temper of the times is not calculated to breed careful and prudent legislators; and though it is quite true that a man who is young in years may be old in hours, if he have lost no time, and therefore it is

not fair to be too suspicious of mere youthfulness, still, as a greater philosopher than Locke has said, the errors of young men are the ruin of business, but the errors of aged men amount but to this, that more might have been done, and sooner; and it must be remembered that there is a youth in thoughts as well as in ages. This youth in thoughts—"youth" meaning that eager, restless, self-confident devotion to progress, no matter how or whither, which is so very dangerous an element in a mind to whose judgment great affairs are committed—is far too prevailing a characteristic of our age. Reposed natures may do well in youth, but natures that have much heat are not ripe for action till they have passed the meridian of their years; and this meridian the present style of thought apparently declines to pass. "Growing old" is now almost a reproach, for "old" is not held to mean mellow, but poor. In the general whirl each individual must take what care he can of himself, and young men would do well to adopt a quieter and more judicial tone in speaking and writing, and a less impulsive and regardless line in action, than an anxious scrutiny of the attitude of young England—even in its happiest aspect—is able to discover. It is quite possible for a young man to be in the best sense of the phrase "growing old," entirely irrespective of the question of long or short life; and the more this possibility is worked out into accomplishment, the more hope will there be for our country and our race.

#### WIDOWS.

It cannot be denied that, of human afflictions, the loss of a husband is one of the most severe and keenly felt. The fate of an orphan may be in itself more pitiable, but in that case the wind is tempered to the shorn lamb, and it never realizes all at once—in fact, it is generally incapable of appreciating—all that is involved in being deprived of a parent's care. But widowhood is a trial all the crushing force of which is felt at the first shock. A vine from which the supports round which its branches trailed and its tendrils clung have been torn away—a flag whose staff has been shattered by a crashing ball—a ship from which the wrestling wind and wave have wrenched its rudder—are emblems not inapt of the desolate and helpless state of the wife who has suddenly been made a widow.

But, is the loss irreparable? Cannot the torn-down vine find other props? Cannot the flag be hoisted again on another staff? Cannot the ship be refitted with a new helm? If such a loss befalls one late in life, it has been more or less foreseen and expected, and the hope of a happy re-union assuages the grief of separation. But we would rather now consider the case of one who becomes a widow at an earlier stage. It may be that, after the first burst of sorrow is over, she finds an alleviation, if not a solace, in the discharge of other duties,—to her children, if there be any who need her care, or to the poor and suffering in her neighbourhood—or, generally, in works of charity and religion. But if her grief takes the form of morbid brooding over her loss, one of two things commonly happens. She either allows her woe so entirely to overmaster and absorb her that only in its indulgence (by a sort of contradiction not uncommon in human nature, especially woman's) can she find any comfort: and the ultimate result of this is mental depression, as in the case of Joanna of Arragon; or, on the other hand, by an unconscious sort of analysis of the elements of her grief, and a perhaps equally unconscious ratiocinative process touching the means of cure, she decides upon taking, *pro re nata*, another husband.

And this is the most rational remedy under the circumstances. For, if the lamented A (let us say) had been a very good husband, as the widow's grief would seem to testify, the acceptance of B is a compliment to his memory; plainly implying, as it does, a desire to renew and perpetuate the happiness enjoyed in the former union. If, on the contrary, A had been a bad husband (an idea which his widow's grief does not by any means exclude—for, did not Mrs. Quilp weep for her lost spouse?), what more reasonable than to seek, in a marriage with B, that happiness which a first unlucky choice had made her lose? If (in a third hypothesis) A had been of the undecided character of Mother Goose's son Jack, "not very good nor yet very bad," it is evidently merely *qua* husband that his widow bewails him, and there cannot be much difficulty in finding a successor. We have said that this is the rational remedy. What (to take some other examples from our modern literature) can be more absurd than the conduct of Amelia in "Vanity Fair," wearing out her days in sorrow over the death of a heartless coxcomb, while she rejects and very nearly loses the homage and devotion of the true-hearted Dobbin? Mr. Lover's argumentative



Irishman, in expostulating with his "Widow Machree," very cleverly represents to her the unbecomingness of her widow's cap, and the solitary plight of her single tea-cup, in contrast with the harmonious relations of the poker and tongs upon the hearth; and, by such logic as this, which even the female intellect can comprehend, carries his suit to a successful issue. In some such way, we fancy, must the soldier have managed his wooing in the famous case of the Ephesian widow, narrated so effectively by La Fontaine, after old Greek writers.

Our readers, doubtless, know the story well; but, as an illustration of our subject, we will tell it here. Once upon a time, a worthy lady at Ephesus had the misfortune to lose her husband—so good a husband that nothing could console her for his loss. Every day, accompanied only by a faithful hand-maid, she went to the vault where his remains were deposited, and there, after having strewn his coffin with flowers, was wont to pour out her sorrow-laden soul in tears and lamentations. This sort of thing had gone on for some time, when one day these sounds of woe attracted the notice of a soldier who had been posted near the gate of the vault to guard the body of a malefactor who had been put to death on a gallows in that place, in order that the criminal's friends should not, by removing it, hinder the full execution of his sentence. Lured by curiosity from his post, the sight that met the man's inquiring eyes excited other feelings. To ask the cause of so much grief—to proffer his manly sympathy, was the impulse of a moment; to find that sympathy accepted took a little more time. Finally, however, it was not rejected; and, in the exercise of such good offices, the time passed quickly by, until, at length, the recollection of his duty recalled the sentinel to his abandoned post. But what was his consternation to find that, in his absence, the body he had been set to guard had been stolen away! Here was a catastrophe! Military discipline, sterner even in those days than now, would have made the soldier's life pay forfeit for his negligence. He returned to the widow, and told her of the disaster. It was a trying emergency, but woman's wit was equal to it. The corpse she had been crying over took the place of the malefactor's on the gallows, and a living husband, in the person of her military comforter, was substituted for the husband she had lost.

When a widow has satisfied herself of the necessity and probable efficacy of the remedy we have been speaking of, it is wonderful how soon she succeeds in finding it. Mr. Tony Weller's apprehensiveness on the subject of "widders" is justified by observation and experience. Of every such woman, in connection with the point in question, it may be said, *Quicquid vult valde vult*; and this, as we all know, is a great help towards success in the attainment of any object. Our leading statesmen, who certainly cannot be considered undesirable as husbands (except, perhaps, in the possible event of their preferring the "House" to the "home"—a danger, however, which is much exaggerated), seem, in a number of instances which will, on examination, be found considerable, but which it would be invidious and improper to particularize here, to have offered the needed consolation in such a predicament. Abstractedly, too—though we do not mean to say the theory applies to every case—the matter is intelligible enough. A man who is actively engaged in public life cannot spare time for the slow and protracted process of wooing which inexperienced young ladies, who take so much time to make up their minds, consider indispensable. In such a case, the experienced widow offers a safe resource. A certain amount of diplomatic caution is necessary, perhaps, but it is not carried too far; the parties are ready to meet each other half-way. Sometimes the lady does not hesitate to pass a small fraction of even that interval, and an understanding of the most cordial character is the speedy and satisfactory result.

#### STEEL PENS v. GOOSE QUILLS.

EVER since men began to think, and advanced from gesture-language to picture-writing and word-writing, they have used some favourite instrument which answered to a pen. The Hebrews chiselled the law on tables of stone; the Greeks engraved their laws on brass; the Chinese, before paper was invented, wrote with an iron style on thin boards or bamboo, and in the present day they form their characters with great rapidity in perpendicular columns by means of a pencil-brush held straight over the paper. Table-books of wood were used before the time of Homer, and continued in use long after papyrus-leaves and skins became ordinary materials. They were usually waxed over, and written upon with a style. What-  
ever was written was easily effaced; and by smoothing the wax a new and clear surface was supplied. The Hebrews had

books written on skins in the time of David; and the Ionians wrote on goatskins and sheepskins when the plant of the biblos was scarce. The North American Indian "blazed" or wounded his recording pine-tree with an axe, so as to mark it with conspicuous white symbols. He also painted pieces of birch-bark with suggestive pictures, to remind the singers of the several verses in their songs or charms. As civilization advanced, and pure letters were substituted for pictures by nation after nation, finer implements became necessary. The reeds of the ancients were in the hands of writers as late as the tenth century, and served in committing their ideas to paper, parchment, or vellum, prepared from abortive or very young calves. The oldest certain account we have of quill pens as instruments of writing, is in a passage of Isidore, who died in 636; but they were undoubtedly in use a century earlier. Many ancient manuscripts written in the sixth century are preserved in the monastery of St. Gall, in Switzerland, and in other religious houses. They are in Irish, or Latin written in Irish characters, and exhibit the finest specimens of laborious penmanship. The geometrical figures with which the letters are rounded, pointed and adorned, are equally curious, minute, and correct. It is evident on inspecting these manuscripts that quill pens must have been employed long before calligraphy could have attained such neatness and perfection. At the same time, it is not always easy to determine from the writing whether a split reed or a quill pen was used in any particular manuscript; and the terms which expressed both instruments long continued to be ambiguous. A bad quill pen and a good reed produced nearly the same effect. When Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths, subscribed the public decrees with the first four letters of his name, it would puzzle any antiquary to say whether he did so with a reed or a pen, properly so called; and his perplexity would be no less if required to state whether, when Jezebel wrote letters in Ahab's name, she did so with the split reed still common in the East, or with a pointed iron style tipped with diamond.

At length, however, the goose, the gall-nut, the gum-tree, and coppers formed a firm alliance; and Pen and Ink was the result of the compact. The chisel, the graver, the style, the axe, the brush, and the reed withdrew their rival claims, and the supremacy of the goose-quill became clearly established, at least in the more cultivated quarters of the globe. In England its undisputed sway lasted five hundred years. It brought in by degrees an era of its own, which may be called the Age of Pens. The Age of the Spear and Lance belongs to primitive times; the mediæval epoch was the Age of the Sword; but the Pen has proved a mightier weapon than either Lance or Sword, and in many countries of Europe its rule is more supreme than that of the Sceptre. Perhaps the goose herself was the individual who suffered most from the momentous change. As education grew general, and the demand for quills increased, the avaricious people in the farm-yard tugged relentlessly at the live geese, and scorned the idea of waiting till the day of their death to reap a harvest of quills. The clarified quills from Holland were sold at eight shillings the hundred under a heavy duty, and even thirty shillings a hundred were paid at last for the choicest article. None but schoolboys and artists ever used split reeds, for they made a rugged line, which, though picturesque in a drawing-master's outline, was ill suited to "up-strokes." The crow quill was fit only for etching and the finest penmanship; while German text, old English, engrossing, and other "black hands" required turkey quills, the goose quill being too weak for the purpose. With these exceptions, and that of the swan quill, which was still rarer, all the run was on the unfortunate geese. Immense flocks of them were fed in Russia and Poland for the sake of their quills, and, a quarter of a century ago, about twenty millions were imported into England annually from those countries. Indeed, it was evident to thinking men, that ere long all the available geese in Europe would be insufficient to supply the English market.

Such was the state of things when a competitor for public favour arose, destined to achieve in a short time extensive triumph, and win from the goosequill more than half its field of action. This was the steel pen. Many abortive attempts had been made to supply the schoolmaster and the clerk's office with some other instrument besides the quill. In France they tried bone pens, but without much success. Then the glass or "fountain pen" came and offered itself, promising great things. It was both pen and inkstand. The sable fluid was to percolate in a perennial stream through the narrow tube without any trouble on the part of the writer. For "the first time of asking" it answered well; but on second use, the tiny duct was invariably choked up, and nothing could cleanse it. Then fountain pens were made of brass, the feeding channel



opened and shut, and could be easily cleaned. But the brass oxidized, and the ink refused to flow through verdigris on any terms. Thin pliant brass lacquered over was tried next in imitation of quill pens, but no one could write with it; tortoise-shell succeeded little better than bone, and the fashion of arming the nibs of pens made from turkey quills with rhodium, ruby, and diamond points was equally a failure.

At length the right thing came to hand. A French mechanic, named Arnoux, had produced metallic pens in the last century, but steel pens for writing were first made in this country by Mr. Wise in 1803. For a considerable time they were manufactured with flat cheeks, and a patent was taken out for them in this form in 1812. Dr. Wollaston's rhodium pen, and the iridium pen of others, were both flat. About the year 1824, Mr. Perry began to make steel pens on an improved plan, and, six years after, they were manufactured in Birmingham, where some of the largest and finest steel pen establishments are now flourishing. At first they were neither good nor cheap. Pens very inferior to those we now buy at a shilling a gross, were displayed ostentatiously on cardboard squares, and sold at half a crown a dozen. Many large fortunes were made, and numberless patents were taken out. Every possible shape and quality became the subject of a patent, and not half of those proposed were ever manufactured. A pen-maker, who was fast becoming a millionaire, once showed a friend a collection of patented pens, which he had never made nor intended to make. "I buy the designs and models," he said, "of the designers. Then I patent them, and put them to bed. They are well worth manufacturing; indeed, many of them are better than anything in the market. But if I were to bring them out, they would only damage the sale of those I am producing by the million, while I should be at the cost of new machinery. So I let them sleep on; and if I do not wake them, no one else, you see, can." This was a trait of commercial policy well deserving consideration in connection with the subject of patents.

Swedish iron is said to be the best material for pens. It is converted into steel on the old plan in a furnace, or by the new process of Mr. Bessemer, and subsequently hardened by tilting, casting into ingots, and rolling it into thin sheets. The consumption of steel in this way is enormous. As much as four and twenty years ago, it amounted to 120 tons annually, and was equivalent to about two hundred millions of pens. This quantity is now greatly increased in consequence of the penny postage, and the improvements in steel pen manufacture. Some idea of it may be gathered from the fact, that pens may now be bought by the trade at fourpence a gross, the box included, and that there are houses which produce twenty, thirty, and even fifty thousand pens daily throughout the year. The art of pen-making has never been brought to greater perfection than in the manufacture of lithographic "crowquill" steel pens. They are very small, as the term indicates, and are adapted to the finest shading. Their chief use is in tracing in crimson lake, and also in lithographic ink on "transfer paper," which has the remarkable property of discharging all its inked lines on the stone, so as to make a complete transfer of the writing or drawing.

The process by which steel pens are made is too long and complicated to be described in this place; but there is one step in it which particularly strikes every visitor of a Birmingham or Sheffield factory. After a great deal of hard treatment they have undergone in the rolling-mill and the cutting-press, in the punching, slitting, and curving, in the oven and the cylinder, the pens have acquired a disagreeable roughness, which must be removed. For this purpose they are put into huge tin cans with a quantity of sawdust. The cans are made to revolve rapidly by steam, and the pens cleanse and smooth each other by friction, while the sawdust takes up all the impurities disengaged. Thus Arthur Hallam used to say that the form and gloss, the picturesque of man and man, are merged and ground in the social mill of great cities, where we are all unconsciously employed in rubbing down each other's angles.

#### MISTRESSES AND SERVANTS.

THE alleged degeneracy of the English domestic servant has recently afforded an excellent opportunity for the exercise of the *cacoethes scribendi*; and so far as the communications to the public upon the subject are the truthful expressions of actual experience, we have no right to take exception to them as statements of fact, but we have every right to examine the conclusions drawn from them. The general tone in which this question has come before us sounds like a discordant flourish of trumpets, celebrating the fulfilment of the prophecies which

four-and-twenty years ago were so unsparingly uttered by thinkers of the old school, who might now triumphantly say—"Did we not tell you what would be the result of all this education of the lower classes, into which you so blindly rushed? You have sown—now you are reaping." If we took for granted all we read and hear about the worthlessness of the modern domestic servant, we might be tempted to admit that we made a mistake when we determined that the rising generation of the people should be taught to read and write. But shall the man always paint the lion? It is but fair that the lion should try his paw at depicting the man. Two pictures of the same subject by different artists will perhaps set each other off admirably.

The mistress says:—"The race of servants has now reached such a pass that it is hopeless to attempt to get a good one. I am obliged to be continually changing, and the change is generally for the worse. There are plenty to choose from, but after they have been with me a little time they all turn out pretty much alike. In engaging a servant nowadays one has to go through quite an ordeal. The last time I wanted a servant, I saw between twenty and thirty before I engaged one, and instead of my being examiner in chief, I found myself subjected to a complete cross-examination upon the advantages which I was prepared to hold out as inducements to the acceptance of the situation. The tables were completely turned upon me. The question whether the applicant suited me was altogether merged in the far more important question whether the situation I had to offer would suit the views of 'the young person who had called respecting it.' The Sundays out, and the other days out, and the privilege of receiving visitors in the kitchen, the hours allotted to work, and the hours for meals, were matters upon which I was closely catechized. In short, instead of that humble demeanour which used to characterize the servant of former days, I had to put up with as much questioning as if I was endeavouring not to find a menial to fill a vacancy in my kitchen, but a purchaser for some goods I had to dispose of, and which, if I desired to secure a bid for them, I must prove to be very genuine. The old time-honoured landmarks between mistress and servant seem to be swept away. The situation which a mistress may desire to fill up in these times is discussed by a servant with as much coolness as any questionable securities might be discussed by some speculator on the Stock Exchange. And then to see how some of these young women dressed. I must confess that not a few of them were dressed with better taste than many young ladies of my acquaintance. How is it to be expected then that I can keep for any length of time a servant engaged under such circumstances? From the moment she comes into my kitchen she regards the relationship established between us as an investment which can be varied at any time if the result be not satisfactory to her. The fact is, that situations in one's household are guided nowadays pretty much in the same way as the productions of the market, or the condition of the funds; and a mistress may think herself highly honoured if she and her situation, as marketable commodities, are not quoted at a discount."

Such is the picture which the mistress paints of the domestic servant of the present day. The vicious servant and the servant that has lost her character are not introduced here, because, at this step, they do not enter into the scope of the question at issue. It is with those who form the main body of domestic servants, and are still entitled to be ranked as respectable members of that body, that we are now concerned. And it is of these that we present the picture. The man has painted the lion, and he believes he has not represented him unfairly. Now let the lion lay the brush upon the canvas—let "the young persons who called respecting the situation" state their case.

"We have heard," say they, "nay, more, we know, that the majority of our predecessors in the calling of domestic service could neither read nor write, and that they looked up to their mistresses as beings of a superior order, whom they were bound to serve with reverence and fear—that in those days it was a common thing for servants to pass a lifetime in one family—and that there sprang up a beautiful feeling of humble dependency which has no root in the working classes of the times in which we are living. And we have been told that the time arrived when the question of educating the labouring classes was discussed with great warmth; that those in power, who believed in the progress of the human race, carried the day, and the great work was commenced. Now that we can read and write, and some of us, perhaps, converse upon the social questions of the day, we actually shudder at the bare idea of the blank page of which our intellects would have consisted if we had had no more schooling than our



parents. We thank you for what you have done for us—we appreciate it, and make use of it. The knowledge that you have imparted to us was professedly imparted for our own good, and you cannot fairly charge us with ingratitude if we take you at your word. We frankly admit that this knowledge which we have received at your hands we propose appropriating to our own advancement. Activity, cleanliness, good management, fidelity in the discharge of the services which we undertake are matters which we regard more as our own valuable stock-in-trade than the property of the mistress with whom we may have engaged. We know that the more clever we are in the performance of what we undertake, the better the bargain we can make for ourselves. The world in general is not so unselfish as to cause us to be ashamed when we own that our endeavours to excel in the branches of our calling are with a view of benefiting ourselves. Nor need we hesitate for a moment to avow this; for, the more efficient we are in filling the situation which we may occupy in a lady's household, the more satisfactory should it be to the lady. But she complains that we are not subservient enough—that she dares not speak to us—that we answer her, and that she does not desire to be answered by her servants. Here lies the rub. It is the non-slavery aspect of the relationship that galls so many mistresses. We trust that we are not disrespectful. We certainly are not so intentionally. It is quite true that we fail to recognise that great distinction which used to exist under the old order of things between mistresses and servants. We are not without our laws of etiquette, and we form, as we trust, a fair estimate of the measure of respect due to those whom we are bound to recognise as our superiors. It would not be to our interest to be wanting in respect to our mistresses; and our observation leads us to the conclusion that where the charge of disrespect is brought in a general way against us it arises from their arrogance. Indeed, it is one of the special accusations brought forward at this time that we presume to criticise our superiors. Yes, we do venture to criticise our employers, and the less wise they are in their management of us the more will they expose themselves to our criticism. We dress too expensively, they say; and seek to be taken for ladies in the streets, instead of what we are—plain servants. Possibly we do. Thousands of mistresses commit a similar extravagance in their way, and seek to be greater ladies than their true position in the social scale warrants. This, we contend, is the natural consequence arising from the great prosperity of the country. Are we to be excluded from those considerations which attach so much importance to the taste exhibited by our sex in the matter of dress? When you taught us to read you placed a great power in our hands. From reading came the knowledge of what is going on in the world; and from this arises the reflection upon our own status. Getting on in the world is the great maxim of the day; and so, if we have comeliness, we have learned that it is of value, and we know that we can set off that comeliness of person by the adornment of dress. When we entered your service, we entered it not for your exclusive convenience, but with a view to our own advancement in life. We, like you, when you were younger and unmarried, look forward to the day when we shall have husbands, and be the joyful mothers of children. You ought surely to be the last to condemn us for such aspirations as these. Many of us, no doubt, act very unwisely and foolishly in the particular steps we take to gain our ends; but here it is that mistresses miss their chance. What a golden opportunity here for sympathy!—a sympathy which would develop into kindly guidance on the one hand, and a grateful deference on the other. This sympathy is the little key which will unlock the great difficulty that stands in the way of the mutual respect which should subsist between mistresses and servants in a well-conducted household. If we knew that we were really cared for—that our prospects in life were matters in which our mistresses really took an interest, a new bond of union would arise, hallowing the cold contract of yesterday into the warm, loving service of to-day."

We have endeavoured to state the case from the two opposite points of view with as much fairness as possible. The pictures are purposely rather underdrawn than overdrawn. If we have leaned towards the side of the servants we have done so because we believe that just as this new order of things was brought about by acts operating from above them, so must the practical issue be guided by the same hands. To have created a new order of things, and to sit down helplessly and lament the practical working of it without putting one's hand to the wheel, is worse than childish. Whether the intelligent or non-intelligent workman can render us more valuable service is no longer a question to be solved. On all sides the labouring classes of the community are pushing upwards and

onwards, and are treading closely on the heels of those who gain their livelihood without manual labour. We cannot run away from the fact. Year by year it will become a greater fact, and to keep pace with it on our side, we must increase in wisdom with it. Let us sum up the case, then, in the full assurance that servants will have as keen an eye to getting on in the world as any other members of the community; that they will regard their engagements as business contracts; that the healthy performance of their duties will spring mainly from the motive of self-interest; and that while this is evident, and will become daily more evident, it becomes of the last importance that mistresses should study the case from every point of view, and so comprehend its true aspect; and, having fully comprehended it, should take into their most serious consideration whether, whilst servants have been rising in the intellectual scale, mistresses have kept pace with them. At all events the question is one which so closely touches the comfort of us all, that we may be well excused for entreating the ladies to bring a little calm philosophy to bear upon it.

#### THE LOSS OF THE "EAGLE SPEED."

WHEN a British ship becomes the prey of tempest or of fire, we have for the most part the consolation of knowing that if her end was sorrowful there were touches of moral grandeur about it, ennobling to those who perished and who survived, and an occasion of pride to their friends and to their country. In that dreadful hour the agony has been silent. His victims have watched the approach of Death with no coward fears, with no selfish disregard of the peril of others; above all, with no desertion of duty, nor shrinking from it, on the part of officers or crew. The mother who has lost a son, the wife who has lost a husband, in such a catastrophe, when the first passion of grief was over, could find comfort in the thought that the death of those they loved was a noble death; much as if they had fallen at the Alma or at Inkermann. What the highest skill or the most heroic devotion could do to save the ship and its freight of lives, was done. The calamity was dreadful, but it called forth glorious traits of character; examples for imitation, acts of daring, and the still higher fortitude of manly resignation, for ever memorable. How differently we regard such a calamity when disgrace has been added to disaster, we have now an opportunity of judging; and, unluckily, it is the conduct of British officers and a British crew whose inefficiency and cowardice are the foil to many a narrative of a very different character.

On Sunday morning, the 19th of August, the *Eagle Speed*, Captain Brinsden, sailed from Port Canning for Demerara with 497 coolies on board,—300 men, 93 women, 65 boys and girls under ten, and 39 infants in arms. The ship was an average vessel, and all the formalities necessary in shipping coolies seem to have been observed except one, on which the value of all the others depended—the mustering of the crew by the pilot. It was the most luckless omission that could have been made; for, grant that these men were insufficient in number or otherwise unequal to their task, the five hundred lives committed to their care stood in the utmost peril. It is a fact that of the 26 men who constituted the crew, only six were fit for duty. The captain, indeed, was anxious to get away to sea that his crew might recover from the effects of their debauch on shore. Some of them were sick when he sailed, others were actually drunk: among the latter were the second officer and the boatswain, who with some others continued in this state during the next day. The captain himself was, or had been, ailing; the chief officer was ill and off duty; and the coolie doctor was so ill that the port doctor took his place until the ship should get to sea. Thus manned the *Eagle Speed* started on her voyage, towed by the steamer *Lady Elgin*, till at four o'clock on the following day, wind and weather bad, the connecting rope broke, and during the two hours occupied in passing another rope, the ship drifted on to the Roy Mutlah sands, a mile off, and sprang a leak. She struck at half-past six in the afternoon of Monday; she did not sink till seven in the morning of the following Wednesday; she was within four hours' sail of safe anchorage where every soul on board could have been saved; yet she sank, and of the 497 coolies who were embarked in her 265 perished. How came this? Only, as far as we can discover, through either the great stupidity or the abominable cowardice of the men in command of her and of the *Lady Elgin*. When the connecting rope parted, Captain Brinsden's obvious duty was to let go his anchor. It appears that, when all the mischief was done, it occurred to him that the anchor might have been of use; but it is possible that with a crew



practically reduced to six men he was at his wits' end how to work his ship, and to the same cause it may have been owing that it was impossible for him to set sail. But why, when the ship fell off the sands, which she did half an hour after she struck, that is at 7 o'clock, did he not insist on the *Lady Elgin* towing him back to Halliday Island, which they could have reached in four hours? Instead of doing so he allowed himself to be taken still further out to sea, until, at 10 o'clock the steamer broke down, and both vessels anchored. To understand fully the mismanagement of both captains, we must observe that from 6 o'clock, when the *Eagle Speed* struck, till the hour when she and the *Lady Elgin* anchored, the coolies had been at the pumps, and that in half an hour after springing the leak the *Eagle Speed* had nineteen inches of water in her hold. To make seaward was in truth to fly from safety and rush upon danger; and indeed it may be said that had the purpose of shipping the coolies been to tow them out to sea and there drown them, more efficient measures to that end could hardly have been taken. Even when, at 3 o'clock on Tuesday morning, the steamer was signalled for help as the *Eagle Speed* was sinking, she neither towed the ship to Halliday Island, nor passed lines by which the coolies might have boarded her, nor sent off her three boats to help in transshipping them. Yet there is not a doubt that any one of these plans might have been adopted, and would have saved every soul on board.

So far as we can discover, there was only one man who in this time of peril had the self-possession to perceive what ought to be done, and the courage to do it. This was Captain Hoskins, the portmaster. Three of the ship's boats were launched, and in one of them this gentleman made five trips between the *Eagle Speed* and the steamer, when he became disabled by sun-stroke. The second of the three boats, manned by the second officer, was smashed after her first trip; the third, under command of the pilot, made one trip, and did not return. There were still five boats which had not been launched—three belonging to the steamer, the other two to the ship. But when the steamer let down one of its boats the rescued crew refused to man it, though their captain was still on the wreck; and it was not until they were bribed and shamed into their duty that they were at last induced to make two trips, bringing off the captain, the coolie doctor, and some others. All the Europeans but one were now saved; but on board the wreck there were still more than 300 coolies, shrieking and clinging to the gangways and bulwarks, or in their despair throwing themselves into the water on hen-coops. There was no one to advise or direct them though two of the ship's largest boats were still to the fore, in one of which the European remaining on the wreck afterwards escaped with several coolies. The interpreter had disappeared; the compounder and others had broken open the brandy-chest; the pilot had not returned, and as there was no one on board who could speak a word of the language, no orders could be given. In the midst of this appalling scene the *Lady Elgin* quietly steamed off to Halliday Island with only 169 coolies saved, under the excuse that she had but one day's coaling on board, which was six times more than was requisite to take her to the island, and amply sufficient to enable her to steam thither, land her human salvage, and steam back to the wreck to rescue the remainder. There was abundance of time to have done this. The ship settled so slowly that she did not sink till eighteen hours after the *Lady Elgin* deserted her. But the attempt was not made. At seven on Wednesday morning, nearly forty hours after she first struck, she went down with all on board; and when two steamers sent from Calcutta arrived upon the scene, all that was visible of her was the top of the mizen-mast, with three boys clinging to it, covered with the rags of the poor fellows who had been washed off, or had thrown themselves naked into the sea in the hope of safety. Some of the latter escaped drowning and landed on the neighbouring mud islets, only to be carried off by tigers; and one of two children who had floated ashore, leaving his companion for a moment, returned to see him in a tiger's jaws. He again threw himself into the sea, and was picked up at the last extremity.

To downright cowardice, incompetence, and neglect, and to nothing else—unless we may add a strong spice of barbarity, is this horrid feast of Death to be attributed. We acquit Captain Hoskins, the portmaster, of blame; what he could do to repair the errors of others, he did. We may also, to some extent, acquit Captain Brinsden, for with twenty, out of a crew of twenty-six, disabled either by sickness or drink, he had undoubtedly a difficult part to play. But on the pilot who should have mustered the crew, and who afterwards deserted the ship, and on the captain of the *Lady Elgin*, who seems to have left undone all that he should have done, in spite of his

obvious duty, the heaviest indignation—and we trust something more disagreeable, to men who have proved themselves so insensate—must fall. Mainly through their dastardly conduct, 265 lives have been lost, and neither their crime, nor our sense of its enormity are the less because the men and women and infants who perished through their desertion, are not of our complexion, and have no representatives in Parliament.

#### OUR UNIVERSITY LETTER.

OXFORD.

HARDLY any Oxford man comes to the second week in October without acknowledging to himself that the Long Vacation is very long indeed. To ninety out of the hundred the summons back to Alma Mater comes with a very welcome sound. The idler is often weary of his domestic idleness; the student is thankful for a variation in his work. Snow is beginning to fall (or would be beginning in any year but the present) over the passes of the high Alps; and if there were not some who were loath to quit the shooting, or to tear themselves from a summer's love-making, October Term ought to be hailed by all; indeed, in the last-named case, the enforced departure has been ere now a happy solution of an intimacy that was growing a little perplexing. Anyhow, from the middle of September up to the first day of Term, a return of the migratory tribes begins, though certainly the rate of their arrival is very much that of the sprightly insects which tormented the legendary Abraham Brown:—

"At first they come by twos and threes,  
Latterly they come by swarms."

But how delightful those meetings after a long vacation are; old jealousies seem forgotten for the time, and old asperities smoothed over. Men who live as comparative strangers to one another all the year meet with a hearty shake of the hand, and the welcome of the stiffest of Dons seems to have in it a spirit of unwonted cordiality. And during this term it would appear that the University is destined to be exceptionally happy, if it be true that a community is most happy when it has no history; for in the future there is nothing yet looming to ruffle its peace. The Regius Professor of Greek will be enjoying a modest competency, and we can weep no more tears and raise no more protests over his martyrdom; the question of Pass and Class Examiners is definitively settled; the appointment to the Regius Professorship of Divinity has been made, and no one can deny that there has been a sort of quiet wisdom in the selection, though the first thought is that Mr. Payne Smith's special qualifications seem rather to fit him for the chair of Hebrew Literature than for the broader field of "Divinity" generally. But the Professor's view, which he explained in his speech at his old school at Campden, is probably not without foundation, that the Government had reason to regard him to some extent as a *malleus hæreticorum*, resting especial weight upon a series of sermons published by him upon the Messianic interpretation of Old Testament prophecies. Also the Great Western carriage works are indubitably located here, and the cup of joy of the Professor of Political Economy (who claims the credit of the result) is full. Also Sir William Heathcote and Mr. Gathorne Hardy are duly returned as burgesses for the University. Thus, in a way, things seem to have fallen into a groove; and, unless sudden complications arise, we are likely to spend a quiet, uneventful term. Yet, though the fact of the election is past and settled, it is not likely that it will have passed away yet as a topic. Indeed, there have been some decided symptoms lately of discussing the question anew under some additional lights. By no means uninteresting is a table which has appeared in some of the papers, contrasting the University honours obtained by the voters of Gladstone and Hardy respectively. It runs as follows:—

	Gladstone.	Hardy.
Double firsts .....	36	4
Firsts and seconds.....	49	12
Firsts .....	227	78
Double seconds .....	21	6
Seconds .....	271	181

The list is significant, and gives some weight to the complaint that the election was a triumph of the Pass schools. It would appear, too, that Mr. Gladstone has given great offence in some quarters by the statement which he made to the effect that "the great majority of the teaching body of Oxford, the great majority of those who devote their nights and days and the best years of their lives in rearing youths," had at all times been his supporters, and in the late election had not abandoned him. These words are commented upon in so amusing a spirit by a journal of High Church proclivities, that it may be instructive to see really how much deep meaning underlies them. "It is true," the article says, "that the residents were divided in the proportion of three to two for Gladstone, and among these voters was a large majority of Professors and Tutors. But," it goes on to inquire, "what does it show after all? Why, that the present body of Oxford teachers are wholly out of harmony with the great mass of the Oxford constituency—with the laity as much as the clergy" (among which "mass," let us not forget the hordes of a certain type of Pass Man who looks to a "coach" for salvation; who refuses to be brought into rapport with a College Tutor at all, and to whom a Professor



is a hazy abstraction only); "with the past Tutors, who are certainly not inferior to the present" (who ought indeed to be infinitely superior, particularly in cases where two tutors enjoyed the emoluments and undertook the amount of pupils, which are now portioned among five); "with the youthful generation which has been educated by these very luminaries, and which turns round upon them by a decided majority." "This 'clique' of Liberal teachers is a terrible thorn in the side of the writer; to him it is something 'unnatural,' only to be accounted for by 'some advantages from within' which these Liberals have secured. After this follows a description—a most harrowing description—of the means by which the Liberal party has spread; a description in which it is hard to say whether the childishness or the spitefulness of the complaints is more striking. If any one should presume to say on internal evidence that it was the spleen of a man who had failed in obtaining honours, who had succeeded in securing neither a fellowship nor an examinership, and who was as mad as Ajax at the Judicium *Armorum*, we should censure the violence of his language, but we should understand what he meant. At any rate here is the passage, let it bear its own burden:—"The ultra-Liberal supporters of Mr. Gladstone, who form the bulk of his resident voters, have been playing a deep game for some years. By getting, in the first instance, possession of one or two influential chairs, of the tutorship of one or two influential Colleges, they have contrived to steal on year by year on a pre-arranged and carefully-sustained plan, till they have forced themselves into a leading place almost everywhere. Whatever the claims of non-Liberals may be, they have been excluded from the ranks of examiners; the books enforced in the classical school have been consequently (!) such as favour ultra-Liberal views; the men who have obtained honours have been men who devoted themselves to these especial books; none others have had a chance of election to Fellowships; a system of co-optation amongst Fellows of Colleges soon multiplies numbers after the ratio of geometrical progression [whatever that may mean]; a constant singing of the praises of Liberalism in the press, which is chiefly worked by friends of these gentlemen, accustoms the public to hear of posts of dignity and influence falling into their hands—and so the thing goes on. Patronage from a Liberal Government feeds and nourishes the brood." *Fas est ab hoste doceri*; and here, assuredly, is a solemn lesson for the Liberals of Oxford to consider. They have been shown up; their deep plans and tortuous ways laid bare, the foe concedes nothing to them but examinerships, high honours, fellowships, leading articles in the *Times*, and other unscrupulous journals, and general Ministerial patronage, including especially deaneries and bishoprics. With these crumbs the Liberals must abide content till brighter days shine upon them, till Goldsmith's Greece be a text-book in the schools, and a first-class shall be an impassable bar to preferment.

The Long Vacation has made another vacancy in the list of professorships. The Reader in Experimental Philosophy, the Rev. Robert Walker, M.A., of Wadham, has died within the last few days, after a long and distressing illness. His death is not only a loss to the University, but to many more, who lose in him a warm-hearted and kindly friend. The duties of the professorship have been recently discharged by Mr. George Griffith, of Jesus College. The election to the vacant post is vested in a board of five members,—viz., the Vice-Chancellor, the Sedleian Professor of Natural Philosophy (Mr. Price); the Professor of Astronomy (Mr. Donkin); the Professor of Chemistry (Sir B. C. Brodie), and the Warden of Wadham. The study of the physical sciences hardly seems to have found a thoroughly congenial soil at Oxford,—perhaps it is not yet completely acclimatized. But certain it is that, in spite of much encouragement in different quarters, and in spite of a really efficient professorial staff, very few young men apply themselves to these subjects, and still fewer gain distinction in them. Possibly there are unavoidable drawbacks, inseparable from the infancy of any new branch of education.

There is much talk in the University, and there will, no doubt, be more, about Dr. Pusey's new book in answer to Dr. Manning's letter—his *Eirenikon*, as he calls it—elucidating the truth and offices of the English Church. Those whose knowledge of Dr. Pusey goes no deeper than the popular notions held of his views upon these subjects, will be almost startled to find in his book such a frank acknowledgment and refutation of the errors of the Romish Church. The same book coming from an unknown hand would be accused of strong Protestantism; but those who know Dr. Pusey best will find in this interesting volume nothing inconsistent with the professions of its author. Yet it is very possible that the publication will be most unwelcome to a certain party of young Oxford, whose idea of the "unity of Christendom" is the merging of the Anglican Church in the Roman. There is, unfortunately, a good deal of fanaticism flourishing here which exhibits itself in various ritualistic displays. There are few, we should hope, who would not be glad to add the solemnities and the attractions of a chastened ritual to the beautiful service of the Church; but for undergraduates to be taught to play at the same is a very different thing; and those who know anything of a particular phase of Oxford life can see this tendency on the steady increase. Unpopular to a degree in the eyes of this class is the Bishop of London, who so lately denuded the clergy of St. Michael's, Shoreditch, of their coloured trappings. Nor has the prelate escaped their vengeance. An ingenious photograph may be seen here representing Dr. Tait, in the full vestments of a Romish bishop, with mitre and crozier, giving the two-fingered blessing from the steps of a high altar.

## THE "LONDON REVIEW" CHURCH COMMISSION.

No. XXVIII.—THE "OPEN CHURCH" MOVEMENT.  
No. 2.

### EXPERIENCE OF CHURCH AND DISSENTING CONGREGATIONS.

THE partizans of the "Open Church" movement are constrained to admit that great caution and discretion are necessary in the management and distribution of the funds raised by the weekly offertory. Many contradictory plans have been suggested at various times, but at present a regular and settled system seems by general consent to have been adopted.

An admirably written prize essay by the Rev. James Hamilton, senior curate of Chipping Campden, on "The Principles of Church Finance, Ancient and Modern," will give our readers the best idea of the organization proposed for the management of the funds produced by the offertory:—

"The introduction of the offertory," he says, "should be attempted with great care and very complete arrangements. The bishops, clergy, and churchwardens, should fix the proportions in which the money should be divided among the clergy and other recipients. When this is done a regular staff of collectors must be organized, a certain number of whom shall be in their place and ready for duty at every service. The form and manner of their work should be prescribed and carefully observed. The amounts collected on each Sunday should be duly posted in the porch, or on the notice-board of the church. The accounts should be annually audited, and a balance-sheet circulated for the information of the parishioners. The strictest commercial regularity should be observed in all transactions with this money. If the clergyman be well advised, he will take care not to be the treasurer, or at least, the sole treasurer. He will associate himself with one or more laymen who command the respect of the congregation. The money should be deposited in their joint names at a banker's, and be drawn out by cheque, signed by all parties. In this way the minister's share could be drawn quarterly. The amount devoted for distribution to the poor could be given by cheque at the same time. Salaries of choir and church officers could be drawn in the same manner, so that the banker's pass-book would, at any moment, show the amount and distribution of the money collected. The sum appropriated to the poor must be disbursed at the minister's discretion; but an account of it, to the last penny, should be kept for production if desirable. Business-like modes of proceeding are not only a security against the commission of embarrassing mistakes, but they beget confidence, and the people give more if they are persuaded it is well and worthily disposed of."

Without expressing any opinion here upon the advantages or disadvantages of the offertory, we greatly doubt the wisdom of Mr. Hamilton's proposal that the sum to be appropriated to the poor should be dispensed solely by the minister. The clergy are notoriously as a body more easily imposed upon by a plausible tale, especially when told by a woman, than any other class of the community. In the next place, committees of the donors should be encouraged to visit, on missions of charity, the dwellings of those in misfortune, in order that the rich and poor may be drawn together as heirs in common of a divine inheritance. The Church may learn from the example of Dissent that she would lose, and not gain, by keeping apart the donor and the recipient. The Nonconformist ministers endeavour, as much as possible, to identify their laity with themselves in the performance of good works, and the result is that the collections in Dissenting chapels for benevolent purposes are far larger than in the Established Church, even in churches like St. Barnabas, Pimlico, and St. Paul's, Walworth, where the adoption of the weekly offertory has stimulated in the most remarkable degree the benevolence of the congregation. The superiority of the collections in the principal Dissenting chapels is attributable to the circumstance that the congregation assist the minister in administering relief. We once asked a London Rabbi the amount of the offerings for the poor at his synagogue. "About £1,000 a year," was the reply. "Do you distribute it yourself?" we inquired. "Oh no! that would be very bad policy," he said; "I always choose some of the wealthiest and most benevolent persons in the congregation to distribute it. The rich thus become acquainted with the poor, and a far better feeling between them is produced. Not only so, but the immediate sight of misfortune begets charity, and a £10 note given into the hands of an almoner for distribution is frequently made twenty from his own pocket before the poor receive it."

The pecuniary success of the offertory in the majority of the churches in which it has been employed is a strong, if not unanswerable, argument in its favour. Among the most curious and valuable of its results is the readiness of the working classes to subscribe to it. Every clergyman knows, as a rule, how slenderly the working men subscribe to the charitable



objects in behalf of which an appeal is made to the congregation. The Association tell us that the reason is to be found in the system of pew-appropriation in our parish churches, whereby the artisan is either hustled out of them altogether, or placed in such positions that his self-respect is wounded. In this way, it is affirmed, the Church has not only lost a very large amount of contributions, but its influence has been greatly weakened among that class to whom it is her special duty and privilege to minister. We have before us the returns of between seventy and eighty churches in which the offertory has been tried. The revenue of every one of these churches has been greatly increased, and in some cases the increase has been truly remarkable. We select the following in proof, taken almost at hazard:—

Parish.	Amount from Pew-rent.	From Offertory.
Aston, near Birmingham .....	£12 0 0	£154 12 9
St. Raphael's, Bristol .....	Not stated.	249 17 2
Burley, Ripon .....	31 0 0	62 0 0
St. James, Exeter .....	69 7 1	163 15 4
St. George's, Kidderminster ...	Not stated.	936 10 3
St. Michael's, Paddington .....	"	709 18 4½
St. Barnabas', London .....	"	956 0 0
St. Neots, Hunts .....	"	651 8 1
St. Philip's, Clerkenwell .....	180 0 0	477 6 0
St. Paul's, Newington .....	270 0 0	1,011 3 0
St. Andrew's, London .....	Not stated.	2,091 1 3

The remarks appended to some of the returns are curious. The congregations here and there hardly seem to know what to make of the change from pew-rents to the offertory:—

*Boyne Hill, Berks.*—"We have never had any difficulty about it. We divide the amount into four parts—schools, repairs of church, clerks, and to the poor direct."

*Burley.*—"Church-rates are given up, so are pew-rents."

*Checkley, Oxford.*—"No opposition to offertory, but churchwardens decline to collect it, and depute sexton. In a neighbouring parish, the opposition to the offertory was so strong that it is already given up."

*Hawkesworth, Lincoln.*—"Monthly for relief of the poor; other Sundays applied to Church societies."

*St. Barnabas, Leeds.*—"Success attending establishment of offertory highly satisfactory. Not only an easy mode of supporting Church expenses, but also a substantial gain as regards increase of income for parish purposes. Support of parishioners hitherto hearty."

*Handsworth, near Birmingham.*—"Never any opposition to this plan. Feeling in favour of offertory is spreading rapidly here."

*St. John the Evangelist, Leeds.*—"Weekly offertory was established in pursuance of recent charge of Bishop of Ripon. The members of our congregation of every rank and age have shown great liberality in their willing offerings."

*Moorfields, York.*—"Notwithstanding the depression in trade, the sum collected this year not only equals, but exceeds that of 1861."

*Port Glasgow, St. Mary's.*—"Most satisfactory; and this without in any way interfering with private benevolence, for, besides the regular subscriptions, the sum of £125 has been raised during the same period for the enlargement of our schools."

*South Henkey, Oxford.*—"I was induced to try the experiment from what I heard at the Church Congress held at Oxford last year, and my success has surprised me."

Admitting, for the sake of argument, that the success of the offertory will lead to its gradual and ultimate adoption throughout the kingdom, we may pause for a moment to inquire into the probable effect of the movement upon some of those politico-ecclesiastical questions which have distracted and divided our politicians. Church-rates, it is clear, will be abolished, and in the most satisfactory manner—by the spontaneous liberality of the congregation. The next question is, what will be its effect on the union between Church and State? When the offertory opens up such fresh and exhaustless springs of Christian benevolence, the Peel clergyman may confidently look forward to the abolition of his pew rents. May not the rector and the vicar in time see it to be both their duty and their advantage to give up their tithes? The promoters of the "open church" movement would have indignantly repudiated at the outset any imputation that the tendency of the Association was to bring about a separation of Church and State. Now, we are assured, a great number of those most actively employed in effecting the abolition of pew rents, and substituting the offertory, not only look forward without alarm to the withdrawal of State endowments, but often maintain that the best interests of the Church would be advanced by the separation. We frequently meet with those among them who devoutly wish that such a consummation may take place. If, indeed, it can be proved, as they pretend, that the Established Church is fully able to maintain herself in as good, ay, even in a better position, by the voluntary contributions of those who worship within her walls, how is she benefited by endowments? With State aid come State restrictions, which fetter her action, and offer a thousand obstacles to her progress and development. Should this feeling become general among

Churchmen the abolition of pew rents and the revival of the offertory will have done more for the dissolution of the union between Church and State than the labours of the Liberation Society could have effected in a century.

The Church of England does not appear to be entitled to the credit of originality in attempting to support public worship by means of the offertory and voluntary contributions. The Nonconformists, with some reason, claim to have been first in the field. For example, before the present offertory system was revived in the Church of England, either in Liverpool or Manchester (the great centres of the movement), the ancient chapel (Independent), in the former town, abolished all pew-rents, leaving it to the liberality of the congregation to pay what they pleased. The appropriation of seats was simultaneously continued, but without the slightest regard to the social status of the pew-holders or the amount they subscribed. The seats were always allotted without favour or affection to the first applicant. We have before us the results of the experiment, which appears to have been most successful. The income of the chapel increased by £100 over the receipts of the previous year, and it has gone on increasing ever since. The chapel collections for missionary and benevolent purposes have increased in quite the same ratio. We have been kindly favoured by Mr. John Baxter, one of the honorary officials of the chapel, with a sketch of the Town Missionary operations, set on foot and maintained by this congregation alone. A few years since, on the removal of the congregation of a Welsh chapel to another part of the town, the congregation of the Crescent Chapel purchased the building, and converted it into a Mission station, which was much required, as the dense population around were in a very demoralized condition. The station was afterwards opened as a chapel. A regular minister was appointed, and the poor were invited to attend. No appropriation of seats was allowed, nor was any rent demanded for sittings. Each person felt free to give what he pleased, or to give nothing. The experiment was a decided success. This poor and hitherto neglected population subscribed during the first year no less than £80 towards the expenses of the chapel, besides a considerable amount through the boxes placed at the doors every Sunday. At present, the average annual collection, without pew-rents or reserved seats, amounts to about £150 a year.

"When the system of voluntary donations was first adopted at the Crescent Chapel," writes Mr. Baxter, "I was treasurer and manager of the pews at that place of worship. I found the great inconvenience of a uniform charge, and, with the sanction of my fellow-officers, we commenced the plan of fixing no rate, but leaving entirely to each person to give what they pleased. The result was that many increased their subscriptions, and some who had previously paid nothing, began to contribute, some young persons and servants subscribing only 1s. per quarter; the increased contributions of the classes who could afford to pay above the average more than compensating for the poor worshippers. The great success of the Burlington Chapel I have already alluded to. There, although all the worshippers are poor, the place is not only well attended, and by those who previously went to no place of worship, but the contributions are still increasing. The third chapel where the system has been tried in Liverpool is at Norwood, a rapidly increasing and respectable suburb. No seat-rents are charged. The first applicant has the chance of seats, and is allowed to pay what amount he pleases for it. The congregation has only been in existence about two years, and the income of the place, arising from weekly offerings and quarterly contributions, is now about £550 a year. The plan has thus been tried in an old-established congregation, in a new chapel in one of the lowest and poorest parts of the town, and in a respectable suburb, and I think I may safely say with complete success. By the adoption of this voluntary system we find we have secured the following results:—

"1. It preserves a sense of independence and self-respect among the poor, by encouraging them to pay something, however little, in support of Divine worship.

"2. It allows all to come, without any money qualification, on perfect equality to the House of God.

"3. It teaches and requires the rich to give, not according to a fixed standard, but according to their ability and their sense of the claim resting upon them, to make up for the deficiencies of their poorer brethren."

This is not in all respects the offertory system proposed to be adopted in the Church of England; yet in the case of the Burlington Chapel above described, where there is no reservation or appropriation of seats, it comes very near it. A still more complete identity may be found in the Bethel Union Chapel, in Liverpool, where the congregation (sailors) have no particular seats allotted to them, yet the offerings amount to between £50 and £60 a year.

Although the abolition of pew-rents in Nonconformist chapels, where the weekly offering is adopted, is not generally carried out, still many chapels have made the change, and the practice is gradually increasing. That the movement will make rapid way cannot be doubted, for it happens singularly enough



that the receipts are invariably in excess of the pew-rents. In the western and south-western counties of England the movement is rapidly taking root.

"The weekly offering works most satisfactorily," writes a minister in Somersetshire. "This is the fourth year of the weekly offering, and we have no wish to return to pew-rents." A London Dissenting minister writes:—

"I had often wished to inaugurate the weekly offering, often spoken of it, and often recommended it, but such bad things were prophesied concerning it that I refrained from pressing it, and it was left over time after time, till it came to this—something must be done, as our present system is insufficient, causing the accumulation of debt to the treasurer against which we cannot stand. The weekly offertory was adopted and has succeeded—admirably succeeded. The old system of quarterly collection was abolished, which in the year raised only £40, while the first ten months of the weekly offering raised £98 towards ordinary expenses and objects, and the last six months £130 additional in liquidation of former deficiencies."

The weekly offering was adopted in two Baptist churches in the north of England, with somewhat different and instructive results. In one, the change was made in the midst of the cotton famine with great success. In the other, the weekly offering did not answer. It was suggested that the congregation did not like the amount of their offerings to be known, and it was determined that small envelopes should be used into which the coin could be placed before depositing it in the plates or boxes. The plan was tried and succeeded admirably—so much so, that the minister advised his deacons, at their first audit, not to glory too much, lest it should diminish their funds.

Another instance;—a Wesleyan church, in a very poor London district, groaned for years under the burden of a heavy debt of £3,000. They in vain appealed to the wealthier Wesleyan congregations for relief, and it was at last resolved to try what the weekly offering would effect. After a sermon and an address by the Rev. Dr. Cather and the Rev. John Ross, Independent minister of Hackney, the congregation adopted the system. The gifts from this poor congregation have since averaged £4 per week.

The Rev. W. Whitehead, of Bradford, Yorkshire, in an excellent published lecture on "Church Finance," gives the following results of two chapels in that neighbourhood, one an offshoot from the other. The younger had been opened four years, and had adopted the weekly offerings from the commencement. The receipts were as follow:—1st year, £173. 4s. 5d.; 2nd, £227. 18s. 10½d.; 3rd, £291. 4s. 11d.; and for the thirty-four sabbaths of the current year the receipts amounted to £182. 8s. 10d. Of the parent chapel he says they had tried it for only a year and a half. At the outset they had to contend with doubts and dislikes, "old habits and prejudices had to be overcome, yet notwithstanding we are able to report more money received than we ever got before from pew-rents. Class distinctions in the House of God, difficulties in the way of strangers, the unpleasantness with people about pews, and the annoyance to deacons, have happily to a great extent disappeared."

Many similar examples of the spread and success of the weekly offertory among Dissenters might be adduced. The Rev. John Ross, of Hackney, as early as July, 1860, addressed a letter to the editors of the *Patriot* and *Nonconformist* newspapers, requesting intimations of the practice of the weekly offerings in Dissenting chapels. He received the names of eighty chapels, but the list has since swelled to 400. In all, the success seems to have been complete; in some places extraordinarily so. In the colonies, especially Canada and Australia, the weekly offering has frequently been adopted in lieu of pew rents, and has given great satisfaction. Upon the whole, however, the Dissenting congregations, in the northern country, still adhere to the practice of appropriating pews and sittings at moderate rents, with weekly offerings attached. This does not, we may well believe, arise from any repugnance to the voluntary system in the abstract. The ministers all admit the excellence of the principle, but apprehend that the general and immediate abolition of the income from pew rents would lead to great difficulties and dangers. Even the Rev. John Ross, the great advocate for weekly offerings, and the editor of the *Weekly Offering Record*, unhesitatingly declares against the abrupt abolition of pew rents:—

"Do I then," he says, "advise the abandonment of pew rents for weekly offerings at the House of God as generally understood and practised? I emphatically answer no! no! no! To do so without first thoroughly training churches in conscientiously 'storing' would prove a terrible calamity with the present low range of the giving principle. It were to lose much of what is now obtained. Until Christians prefer Scripture principles to custom and expediency, ministers and deacons cannot safely give up pew rents. Only when giving for the love of Christ becomes a solemn purpose and a holy

passion can this fairly be required of them. If ministers and deacons are required to exercise more trust in the people, the people must prove themselves more worthy of trust. How far their own teachings and example will promote this is a very momentous point. Persons have urged the sole and secret use of weekly offerings, quoting, 'Let not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth;' who afterwards did nothing with either hand."

If any are disposed to doubt whether the free gifts of a nation are able to support its Church, they have only to study the history of the Free Church of Scotland. Twenty-three years ago that Church separated from the State and became an independent body. Dreary were its prospects. It was without a home, without funds, and possessing only the barest outlines of an organization. Four hundred of its ministers had joined the movement without any certain means of support. At this conjuncture of its affairs the illustrious Chalmers devised the scheme of the Sustentation Fund. A complete new organization exists in the remotest country districts in Scotland as well as in the principal cities. In the eloquent words of the Rev. Dr. Buchanan, the secretary of the Sustentation Fund,—

"From the Tweed and the Solway to the Butt of Lewis and Cape Wrath—nay, even to Yell and Uist, the very remotest of the Shetland Isles—everywhere I see the broad marks of that firm hold which this Free Church has taken of the land—a Church which, twenty-two years ago, had not a solitary dwelling for its ministry, nor a solitary church for its people, nor a solitary school for its children, nor a solitary shilling in its treasury for the support of its ministers and for upholding the ordinances of God. I am filled with amazement."

Twelve months after the disruption, instead of the treasury being without a shilling, it had in its coffers no less a sum than £68,704. 14s. 8d., and the amount paid to each of the 474 ministers who had joined in the movement was £100. Annually the number of ministers increased, until it reached little less than 800. With the augmentation of the number thrown upon the Sustentation Fund for support, the amount of subscriptions increased in greater ratio, until in 1864 the sum had reached £116,324. 3s. 5d., enough, after deducting all expenses, to provide a stipend of £138 for each minister. This vast sum was not, as it probably would have been in England, the contribution of certain benevolent individuals noted for their great wealth and liberality, but the free-will offering of all persons attached to the Free Church. The artisan, peasant, and shepherd, as well as the nobleman, the landed proprietor, the members of the learned professions, bankers, merchants, and tradesmen, severally subscribe, according to their means, and as God has put it into their hearts to give.

It must by no means be supposed that the members of the Free Church imagine they have discharged their obligations to religion and its ministers when they have provided a stipend of £138 a year, for each of the clergy, payable out of the Sustentation Fund. In addition to frequent offerings for other purposes a collection is made, in every Free Church, for additional remuneration for the minister. This appeal is so cheerfully and so liberally responded to that in some cases it doubles, in others it quadruples the income received from the Sustentation Fund. In large and populous places it is no uncommon occurrence for the minister to find his income raised by the liberality of his congregation to £500 and £700 a year. In a few cases even larger sums are named. To these outgoings must also be added the pew rents, which, although not excessive, are in all cases sufficient for the repairs and working expenses of the church.

It appears, then, that the adoption of the pew system in Scotland is no impediment to liberal giving, and the question seems to settle itself at the point suggested by the Rev. John Ross, that the English congregations have not been sufficiently educated by their clergy in the duty of giving. Somebody has said that "an act of charity is a physical prayer." The restoration of the offertory into the service is certainly a step in the right direction. It is a weekly lesson of benevolence, and when the congregations are better versed in it, pews, with their detestable unsightliness, may be done away with.

The practice and experience of the Church and Dissenting congregations of the metropolis in regard to pew-rents are somewhat conflicting. In St. Paul's, Walworth, by the abolition of pews and the substitution of the offertory, the income of the church has been increased from £250 to upwards of £1,000 per annum. At Mr. Spurgeon's chapel, hard by St. Paul's, Walworth, pew-rents are retained, yet the voluntary contributions exceed those at St. Paul's. At the Percy Chapel, Bloomsbury, where pew-rents have been abolished, the offertory and contributions, in proportion to the number of the congregation, exceed those of Mr. Spurgeon's Tabernacle. In the Jews' Synagogue, Margaret-street, a short distance from



the Percy-street Chapel, the "offerings" are far in advance of the contributions at the last-named chapel, yet the cheapest single sitting is £3. 3s. a year, and the highest £5. 5s. Here the expense of the sitting would seem to be an inducement to liberal offerings. Let us now turn to the Greek church in Moorfields, with a congregation of 400. One half of the congregation are women, who, in Greek churches, do not give, and a certain proportion of children must also be deducted. There remains a "giving" congregation of only 160. There are no seats, and the contributions, which are left to the generosity of the individual donors, reach to the high amount of £1,660.

No one will deny that great Christian liberality may co-exist in congregations with a system of pew-rents. It is equally clear that Church congregations, as a rule, have not yet learned the "blessedness of giving." The abolition of pew-rents, and dependence upon the offertory, no doubt bring the subject before our congregations in a practical shape. The minister has every motive to inculcate what Mr. Ross calls a higher range of the giving principle. When a donation is left to a man's honour and liberality he gives more, and has more pleasure in giving, than when he is called upon for a fixed sum assessed by others. Again, when the offertory is in part devoted to the maintenance of the fabric, and the expenses of divine worship, a man consults his own comfort and convenience by giving handsomely. A feeling of pride in the liberality of their particular congregation probably disposes some to keep up their contributions. Higher and worthier motives in time come in, and the man who gives at first from novelty or ostentation, may end by feeling that he holds all he has, not as an owner, but as a steward. Many good and pious men at the present day have recognised temporal as well as spiritual blessings as the result of systematic beneficence. Mr. Müller strongly exhorts Christians of every sect to dedicate a fixed and regular proportion of their income to pious and charitable uses. Let it be never so small at the beginning, he says, it is better to fix this small proportion than to give spasmodically and irregularly. Until Churchmen and Dissenters learn this lesson of systematic beneficence, the weekly offertory may usefully remind them of the duty of devoting a portion of their substance to the benefit of the poor, the spread of the Gospel, and the work of the Ministry.

It doubtless behoves ministers and churchwardens to act with caution in so important a matter. Pew rents may be as the crutches which prevent the Christian minister and his flock from walking in the full faith, liberty, and joy of the Gospel. Yet men do not throw away their crutches without thought, and care, and needful preparation. For the encouragement of ministers who are about to take the step of throwing their churches open, it must be admitted that the almost uniform success of the movement will sufficiently absolve them from any imputation of rashness. Proprietary and district churches move in orbits of their own, and we leave the association to fight its own battle with them. But any well-advised agitation for bringing back the poor man to the old parish church, from which he has been too often thrust out, has our warmest wishes for its success. Every true friend of the Church of England will wish the day to be far distant when the rich shall beautify and restore the fabric, and drive the working man from the church of his fathers, to worship with his fellows in ecclesiastical barns and licensed schoolrooms.

#### THE RITUAL QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "LONDON REVIEW."

SIR,—As you have admitted into your number for October 7, at page 384, a letter with the above heading, signed "Experience," I trust you will allow one of your constant readers the opportunity of remarking that the writer of that letter, whilst pleading for a fair field and no favour in behalf of ritualists and non-ritualists alike, has described the former by eulogistic epithets, whilst stigmatising the latter in language scarcely compatible with the courtesy for which your columns are generally to be commended. "Ornate," "symbolic," "artistic," these are the terms of praise applied to the one extreme, without a whisper of "sensuous" or "superstitious." The other is described as "the unadorned, bald, musicless worship conducted by a clergyman of the most ultra-Puritan and dismal disposition, with the most depressing notions and narrow views about Christianity, in some sparsely-furnished barn or loft." "Experience" justly states that it is the mission of the Church in this land "to draw all men to Christ, and to build them up in Him." But it does not follow, as he assumes, that these great objects are likely to be promoted, and not rather to be hindered, by ritual, sacerdotal, and sacramental observances of mediæval type. Supposing this to be an open question, and holding with those who maintain the negative, I should hardly think it fair to advocate my own views in a public journal, by first arguing that both parties ought to have free scope to try their respective systems, and next describing the one as aiming simply to worship God in spirit and in truth, and the other as con-

triving to steep the senses in an agreeable delusion, by the united charms of architecture, painting, sculpture, music, millinery, jewellery, and perfumery. And yet this latter would be quite as correct a description of the ritualists as that which your professedly-candid correspondent has given of their opponents.

Yours very truly,

C. G.

October 9, 1865, W. S. M.

#### FINE ARTS.

##### MUSIC.

THE close of Mr. Alfred Mellon's Concerts the week before last, and the resumption of the Crystal Palace Saturday Concerts last week, may be considered as leading directly to the commencement of the winter season, which will begin in earnest on Saturday next with the opening of the Royal English Opera Company. An English version of Meyerbeer's posthumous opera, "*L'Africaine*," the text by Mr. Charles Kenney, has been prepared for the opening night, and will include many portions of the work which were omitted in its performance at the Royal Italian Opera last season. This closer adherence to the original French score will give a fresh interest to the reproduction of the opera in its English shape. The new works announced are an opera entitled "*Ida*," by Mr. Henry Leslie, a composer who has hitherto been chiefly known by his productions in sacred music; and an operetta, "*Christmas-Eve*," by Mr. Deffel. Félicien David's "*Lalla Rookh*" is also promised, and will in all probability prove an attractive feature, with all the unusual advantages for spectacular display offered by the resources of Covent Garden Theatre, especially as the ballet forms an important feature in the arrangements for the forthcoming season, several new dancers of foreign celebrity having been engaged. Gounod's "*Mock Doctor*," the most successful production of last season, is to be given, according to the programme, "only for a few nights," in consequence of the production of Mr. H. Leslie's new opera. Without any disparagement of Mr. Leslie's yet unheard work, it may be questioned whether it is wise prospectively to limit the repetitions of so charming and attractive an opera as that of Gounod, in favour of a work which has yet to be tested. A singular feature in the programme is the coupling together the names of Auber's "*Masaniello*" and Macfarren's "*Helvellyn*," which, we are told, "will each be played for a few nights to give additional variety to the programme." Auber's charming work will be welcome and attractive every season for an indefinite period; but it could scarcely be expected that "*Helvellyn*" would turn up again after its reception last year. No doubt, however, the two operas, so curiously and unfortunately placed in juxtaposition, will, as the programme says, "give variety"—that variety which arises from the contrast of good with bad. A version of Auber's "*Le Domino Noir*" is also promised. As already said ballet is to form a much more important feature than heretofore, and pantomime is again to be the special attraction for Christmas. The vocalists engaged form an efficient working company, including, besides others, Miss L. Pyne, Madame Sherrington, Mdle. Lancia, Miss Thirlwall, and a débutante (Mdle. Ida Gillies) from whom much is anticipated as a pupil of Auber. Mr. Charles Adams will be the principal tenor. Mr. Cummings, who has lately gained so high a position as a concert singer, will make his first appearance in English opera. Mr. Miranda, also a first appearance here, and Mr. Haigh, are among the engagements. Among the basses Mr. A. Laurence appears to be the principal, supported by Messrs. Patey, Corri, Cook, and Dussek. With an efficient orchestra, largely formed from the materials of the Royal Italian Opera band, (conducted by Mr. Alfred Mellon, and the business arrangements of the theatre in the hands of that experienced acting manager Mr. Edward Murray, the prospects of the season appear hopeful—all the more so as there seems to be less trust than hitherto in the resources of native composers.

A short series of operatic performances in Italian is announced to commence at Her Majesty's Theatre on Monday week—and a series of concerts, at the same establishment, to begin on Nov. 18.

#### THE LONDON THEATRES.

MISS ADAH ISAACS MENKEN has again appeared at Astley's Theatre, and her manager and importer, Mr. E. T. Smith, has made a sad mistake in the vehicle he has chosen for her reintroduction to a London public. Instead of getting a transpontine stage-carpenter to put together a good, strong, serviceable, equestrian piece of the old Astley's type, with plenty of practical effects, and an utter absence of literary pretension, he has employed Mr. John Brougham, an author of some taste and no experience in this particular market, who has failed where Mr. Tom Taylor failed before him. "*The Child of the Sun*"—the new drama in which the lovely strider of horses appeared on Monday night at this theatre—is one of the most incomprehensible and uninteresting spectacles ever put on the stage—bad as a drama, and bad as a show-piece for a woman who has nothing but her physical attractions, and her extraordinary liberality in displaying them, to recommend her. Those who respect Mr. John Brougham as an old and favourite actor and author, must be sorry to see his name attached to a piece of hack-work that would have been better done by one of the stock Lambeth playwrights.



Mr. Charles Mathews has returned from Paris, where he has been reaping golden opinions and fair profits, by showing the Parisians how well a clever and accomplished Englishman can act in the French language. His success is a credit to the English stage, and one of the very few theatrical things we have to be proud of. He and Mrs. Mathews have returned to the Haymarket, which is now open for the winter season, and have appeared in "Used Up" and the "Golden Fleece."

The St. James's Theatre will open to-night (Saturday), under the management of Miss Herbert, with a new comedy by Mr. John Brougham, called "Caught in the Toils."

Mr. Brougham has sailed for America, to fulfil a long starring engagement; and Mr. and Mrs. Boucicault, after their long summer's work, are enjoying a well-earned holiday in Paris.

Mr. and Mrs. Howard Paul have opened the Egyptian Hall with their clever and varied musical entertainment.

NEW PORTRAIT OF TENNYSON.—Messrs. Marion, Son, & Co., of Soho-square, have published, mounted on plate paper, a new photograph of Tennyson, which is calculated to be popular. It is a profile, and shows the magnificent brow and facial line of the poet to great advantage. The eye, heavy with thought, seems looking into the distance of speculation; and the hair and beard—often a failure in photographs—come out with remarkable freedom and truthfulness. A facsimile of the signature is given underneath. Messrs. Elliott & Fry, of Baker-street, Portman-square, are the photographers, and the work reflects great credit on their skill.

### SCIENCE.

A VERY remarkable discovery illustrating the laws of chemistry has recently been made by Dr. Lossen, of Berlin. This young chemist, by the discovery of a substance which may be termed a protoxide of ammonia, has verified one of the most interesting theories of modern chemistry. He has shown that the existence of a series of bodies intermediate between nitric acid and ammonia is no mere hypothesis. The new substance (which is produced by the action of nitric acid on metals) combined with acids, and formed a series of magnificent salts, remarkable for the facility with which they crystallize. The simplest method of preparing it is by submitting nitrate of ethyle to the action of metallic zinc in the presence of an acid. The new body may be regarded as ammonia in which one atom of hydrogen is displaced by what might be regarded as the basis of water. This discovery was accidentally announced by Dr. Hofmann, in a discussion which took place at the last meeting of the British Association, and it certainly merits the careful attention of the philosophic chemists.

Some curious facts relative to the action of alkaline metals upon gun-cotton have been pointed out by Mr. W. S. Scott. In some of his recent experiments he accidentally dropped a piece of potassium upon some gun-cotton lying upon his laboratory table, and was surprised to see that the gun-cotton immediately exploded. He then instituted a series of researches to determine what conditions were necessary for the explosion to take place—whether the phenomenon was the result of moisture; whether other metals would act similarly, &c. He found that, notwithstanding all his precautions to prevent friction, the gun-cotton still exploded. When sodium was employed a like result followed, though the gun-cotton had been rendered perfectly anhydrous. When an amalgam of sodium and potassium was used no apparent result was produced. Various other metals were experimented with, but decided effects were obtained only with the metals of the alkalis. One of Mr. Scott's discoveries is the fact that when metallic arsenic is mixed with gun-cotton, a blow of the hammer is sufficient to ignite it.

Mr. Richard Beck has devised a new form of parabolic illuminator for microscopical purposes, which deserves the attention of histologists. It consists of half of a silvered paraboloid placed at the back of the object-glass, not attached to its front tube. All the adjustments are easily made with the  $\frac{2}{3}$ -inch and lower powers; its focus is about one-tenth of an inch from its lower edge, and it must, of course, receive parallel rays, so that when it is employed by lamp-light, a condenser must be placed at the distance of its focus before the light.

In a letter to the *Geological Magazine*, Mr. H. H. Winwood describes his explanations of the "Hoyle's Month Cave," near Tenby. In one of the furthest chambers from the entrance to the Carlon, he found, beneath a mass of undisturbed breccia, the right and left thigh-bones, the hip-bone, some vertebrae, and other relics of the great cave bear; these were extracted in a very perfect state. Near them were the radius of *Hyæna spelæa*, and several loose bones and teeth of the fox, deer, and ox. In one of the passages leading from this chamber he discovered fragments of bones and an incisor of the hyæna; also, in the breccia, the bones of some large bird, and what is of special interest, a worked flint, apparently of the barbed type. All these remains were below the level of the old stalagmitic floor.

In the *Proceedings of the Royal Society* a paper appears by Dr. Wilson Fox upon the mode of development of muscular tissue. According to his observations, the earliest form in which muscular tissue appears in the tadpole, is an oval body containing a few nuclei, and packed closely with pigmentary

granules. From the well-defined outline of this body the writer is disposed to regard it as a cell though he has not been enabled to isolate any limiting membrane or cell-wall. These bodies increase in length with or without multiplication of their nuclei, and, after a short period, a portion of their structure loses, in great part, its pigment, and exhibits a striation which is sometimes transverse, sometimes longitudinal, and occasionally both; but at this period there is no distinct line of demarcation between the striated and non-striated portion of the cell-contents, showing that the change takes place within the contents of the cell.

We regret to announce the death of Herr Remak, of Berlin, one of the greatest anatomists of the present century. He was especially known for his researches upon the development of the vertebrata, and for his researches upon the structure of nerve, one of the tissues of which he has given his name to. He died of carbuncle, at Kissengen.

### MONEY AND COMMERCE.

THE weekly court at the Bank of England broke up without making any fresh rise in the rate of discount. As this result was anticipated, the announcement did not give any general impulse to public securities. The English funds, foreign bonds, home railways, and other securities have scarcely varied; but, where a fractional change is observable, it is in an upward direction.

The quotation of gold at Paris is about 3 per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is 25.30 per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10½d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is about 2.10ths per cent. dearer in London than in Paris.

By advices from Hamburg the price of gold is 428 per mark, and the short exchange on London is 13.6 per £1 sterling. Standard gold at the English Mint price is, therefore, about 2.10ths per cent. dearer in Hamburg than in London.

The course of exchange at New York on London for bills at sixty days' sight is 109½ to 110 per cent. At this rate there is a small profit on the importation of gold from the United States.

There were comparatively few transactions in Colonial Government Securities. Canada 6 per Cents. (Jan. and July, 1877-84) brought 96½ 5; do. (March and Sept.), 94; 5 per Cents., 82½; Mauritius 6 per Cents. (1882, May and Nov.), 106½; Queensland 6 per Cents., 102; Victoria 6 per Cents. (April and Oct.), 105½ ex div.

Foreign Stocks are steady, with little change in prices. Spanish Passive Bonds and Certificates have improved  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Brazilian scrip is steady at 3½ to  $\frac{1}{2}$  prem. Some of the present quotations are subjoined, viz.:—Greek, 20 to  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; Turkish Consolidated, 48½ to  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; Spanish Passive, 29½ to  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; ditto Certificates, 14½ to  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; Confederate, 6 to 7; and Mexican, 25½ to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

The Stock Exchange Committee have appointed Wednesday, the 18th instant, a special settling day in the shares of Hodges's Distillery Company (limited) and Brill's Brighton Baths Company (limited), both to be marked in the twice-a-week list.

The following resolution has been passed by the committee:—"That after full consideration of the circumstances connected with the General Estates Company, the committee hereby rescind the order of the 25th September suspending the buying in of shares of the said company."

At a meeting on Tuesday of the holders of "bonds, stocks, and shares of the United States of America, whereon the coupons, interest, or dividends are now in arrear, arising from the late war and other causes," a committee was unanimously appointed. It was also resolved that the committee shall be paid a commission of one overdue coupon or dividend, being half a year's interest, out of each settlement, to repay the expenses they may incur. It was remarked that the total amount of the arrears due could not be less than £4,000,000, nor the aggregate of the debt less than £27,000,000. This amount did not include the Mississippi Bonds, which amounted to £4,000,000, nor the indebtedness which was created by the late war. Of the debt due, South Carolina owed £700,000; Missouri, £500,000; Tennessee, £800,000; North Carolina, £1,800,000; Arkansas, £600,000; Virginia, £11,200,000; Louisiana, £1,100,000; Georgia, £600,000; guaranteed debt, £3,000,000; besides £2,000,000, representing the debt of cities and corporate bodies.

According to a statement published by Mr. F. M. Page, the shipments this year of specie to the East fall short of the shipments during the same period in 1864 (nine months) by more than 12 millions sterling—viz., to Alexandria, less so far in 1865, £1,000,000; to India, £10,000,000; to China, £1,000,000. To other unimportant places the export appears to have been about equal to that last year.

The Bank of France has raised its rate of discount from 4 to 5 per cent., and the Bank of Frankfurt from 4½ to 5½ per cent.

The final arrangements for the conversion of the Mexican Loan of last year have been completed, and the operation will be conducted by the Comptoir d'Escompte of Paris on the following basis:—For each bond of £3, or 75fr. 60c., a new bond of 500fr., or £20, bearing 60fr., or £2. 4s., will be issued on Exchange. The total number of such bonds to be issued will be limited to 500,000, representing a capital of 250,000,000fr., or £10,000,000. A lottery scheme is attached to the payment, by which prizes to the extent of 1,500,000fr., or £60,000, yearly will be given away; the highest of which is £20,000. The entire debt is thus to be paid off in the space of 50 years from this time. A bonus fund is also to be provided, by which a premium of 340fr., or £13. 6s. per bond, is to be granted.

The numbers are published of various bonds of the Colombian Government Loan of 1863, which have been drawn, and are now payable at par at the London and County Bank.



## REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

## FROST AND FIRE.\*

WE are accustomed to look upon this earth of ours as a more or less perfect spheroid, having a definite surface. We draw out maps and construct models of it, and on these we delineate those surface irregularities which most of us regard as having always existed, and which we suppose will continue in their present condition till the world ceases to be. The great mountain chains and ocean beds we look upon as things that have always been and ever will be, and hence we give ourselves very little trouble as to their origin. It is not so with the geologist; he regards the present configuration of our globe as the result of certain natural operations, and for him the mountain peak and the ocean valley are records of past phenomena. Believing in the existence of an universal and ever-acting force, he studies it as it works now, and argues from the present to the past. Carefully observing the effects of our ordinary physical forces—of water-action, of heat, of cold, and of those chemical operations which occur in the bowels of the earth—he discovers the key to the secrets of Nature's past. In fact, he studies the natural effects which occur around him to-day, and, discovering their causes, he infers those which operated in a former epoch. In the influence of the sun's heat in bringing about the flow of rivers, of the moon in producing tidal action, and of the chemical changes which produce volcanic eruptions, he sees the explanation of our present globe-surface. Sun-heat acting upon water, and earth-heat produced by the chemical action of substances in the interior of the globe, are the two great agencies which give peculiar features to the surface of our planet. Without the two, the effect could not be produced, for it must be borne in mind that they are antagonistic. Sun-heat, through its influence on water, tends constantly to reduce the surface to a level plain; while earth-heat as invariably conduces to an opposite condition. The warm rays of the sun, falling upon the waters of our oceans and seas, cause their evaporation; the vapour ascends into the atmosphere, is accumulated into clouds, and condensed (through the occasional absence of heat) into rain; the rain falls upon the mountain tops, and is collected into streams; these in their downward course erode or wear away the surface, and, carrying it in suspension, are gathered into rivers, which in their turn fall into the ocean, bearing with them their earthy burden. Thus, through the interrupted action of the sun's heat, is the grand aqueous circulation maintained. The ocean is the great heart vitalized by the sun; the atmosphere constitutes a mighty arterial system; and the rivers are so many gigantic veins, which bear the earth-dissolving liquid to its natural reservoir. But it is not always in the form of rain that water raised by evaporation is restored to its source. The aqueous matter which the atmosphere holds in suspension is condensed into snow, and this is afterwards converted into glaciers, which, like huge solid rivers, flow slowly and almost imperceptibly through the valley, till at length they reach a temperature under which they melt, and deposit their gatherings of rock-débris. Thus we perceive that the sun's heat, acting at intervals, operates in wearing down the present elevations of the globe, and we also see that such a powerful and ever-acting force would soon eat away our highest mountain-peaks, were it not kept in check by some equally potent agent. The chemical changes which are perpetually taking place in the interior of the earth develop expansive force, which tilts the level surface into hills and rugged mountain chains; and thus the balance between elevation and denudation is wonderfully and beautifully preserved. Volcanic force is tilting up, and aqueous action is wearing down; but a grand equilibrium is maintained, and neither exceeds the other in the extent of its results. If we were to speak only popularly, we might say that frost and fire are the two engines at work in altering the shape of the earth's surface: fire, as represented by the sun, raising up vapour, which is then condensed by frost, and in the form of running water produces erosive action; and fire, as indicated by volcanic action, elevating mountains. But such a mode of expression is objectionable, because it would give to frost an absolute quality equivalent to that of fire, which it does not deserve. Cold (or frost) is a condition in which heat is not present, and is simply characterized by the absence of fire. Hence it is more correct to say that the interrupted action of sun-heat, and the operation of the earth's intrinsic heat, are the two agencies which are constantly engaged in antagonistic labours.

Frost and fire, however, being the title of the handsome volumes lying on our table, we shall employ these terms in the following remarks, as they convey the idea of two powerful natural agents better than more strictly technical expressions. Let us see, then, how our author illustrates the operations of these forces in modifying the earth's surface. *Imprimis*, we must remark that Mr. Campbell is both an original thinker and an original writer, and adopts no previously-employed method in laying the subject before his readers. He is more of a careful and philosophic observer than a good teacher; and though, in many instances, he puts his ideas forward in the form of a comprehensive generalization, he far more frequently gives them as "odds and ends," which follow each other without much connection, and in no proper sequence. Indeed, he admits as much in his preface, when he says:—

\* Frost and Fire; Natural Engines, Tool-marks, and Chips. With Sketches taken at Home and Abroad. By A Rambler. Two vols. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.

"The following pages are meant for readers who take pleasure in natural science without being philosophers. They are records of things seen or learned, and of thoughts which sprang up while scenes were fresh, or knowledge freshly gained. They are written by one who has no claim to scientific knowledge, and they are printed for people like himself."

Still, with all the want of system which the work displays, there is much geological truth conveyed in its pages; and the facts of science are exposed not abruptly, but in their gradual development. The writer does not simply express a law or theory, and then illustrate it; he traces the various steps by which, from ignorance, he arrived at a knowledge of scientific principles. This is a circumstance which lends interest to the work, at least in the mind of the general reader, who, in its perusal, sees how difficulties which have presented themselves to his own mind have been overcome. There is nothing in the theories advanced which differs from those in the sketch we have already given.

On the title-page, the word Frost is written over snow and above a delineation of Hecla; the word Fire is written under steam in Strokr, and under a representation of the sea:—

"The book attempts to prove that both of these natural forms, which were copied from nature in Iceland—the cold conical snow-clad pile, built about a hot crater raised high in cold air, and the conical pit from which steam casts boiling water along rays—are tool-marks of natural agents which shape the earth's crust, and are moved by frost and fire, by cold above and by heat underground. The atmosphere and the ocean aboveground, solids, fluids, and gases under it, are the engines meant; sedimentary and igneous rocks are the chips and cinder-heaps; mountain forms, the tool-marks of these engines; and the ultimate cause of all their movements must be the will of Him who made them all."

As we have said, Mr. Campbell pursues no distinct system in teaching what he has learned from his own observations; and hence any part of his work may be taken up and read independently of the other portions. He writes of the phenomena of air, water, and ice, principally; indeed, the greater portion of his book is devoted to descriptions of the action and effects of glaciers, as he has observed them during his extensive travels. We shall therefore give the reader a sample of his observations upon each of the three subjects—air, water, and ice. Meteorology, which is the science of aerial phenomena, ought really to be considered a branch of geology; for is it not through the indirect influence of the atmosphere that vapour is disseminated and condensed prior to its descent upon the earth? The question of atmospheric streams and currents is one of the highest interest, especially as it is certain that all aerial movements are dependent for their origin upon the action of heat. It is this relation of heat to air which leads our author to give the following popular illustration of the effects of changes of temperature upon large masses of air:—

"Perhaps the largest mass of air inclosed artificially is at the Sydenham Crystal Palace, and the draughts and warm currents are in proportion to the size of the building. At one end, a high temperature is preserved for the benefit of tropical birds, plants, and fish; but the rest of the building is kept cool. According to theory, there should be a warm, moist current flowing along the roof from the warm tropical regions, and a cold, dry current flowing along the floor towards them; but of these, even the temperature in them would be too evenly spread by the air. To keep the temperature off the balance, the currents were arrested, but they assert their presence, nevertheless, and show pressure by form. The tropic which divided the torrid zone of the Crystal Palace from more temperate regions was at first a great canvas screen, and its form betrayed the invisible forces which pressed upon it. It bulged outwards *above* like the topsail of a big ship, and inwards *below* like the mainsail of a 'first-rate' taken aback. The imprisoned breezes could have driven big ships and large balloons, waves and clouds, east and west, for the sails tugged hard above and below. A visitor passing the tropics below passed the door with a cold, fair wind behind him; but one who attempted to enter by the upper gallery was met by a strong, damp, warm head wind. Heat expanded the air, weight squeezed it, and air pushed the canvas two ways at once."

Having entered upon an explanation of the chief meteorological facts, and dwelt upon the influence of heat and cold in producing atmospheric currents of different temperatures, our author describes the effects of heat in producing vapour. This leads him on to inquire into the nature and form of clouds; from these he passes on to rain, and we then find him discussing the much-vexed question of water-action. Travelling with him through the fosses and fjords of Norway, we learn how rivers are gradually but surely eating away the solid rock, and carrying it in suspension to the ocean. Now and then, our companion digresses from mere description to generalization, and in this way deduces laws from facts. Thus we find him remarking that "water flowing in any open channel rebounds from side to side, and from the bottom; so a river wears its rocky bed irregularly, but on system. Resistance on the right bank reflects the stream toward the left, and then it digs a hollow, and swings back. When the water falls, it digs a concave hole, from which it rebounds again; and so the river wears its bed according to force and resistance, and in curves: on a steep slope, zigzag movements are slow in proportion to the fall; the water hits the side of the trench at a small angle, and rebounds at one still smaller. So the mountain torrent works most at the bottom, where it hews out rock-pools; leaping from step to step through deep ravines in foaming cascades."

It is upon the subject of the operations of ice that Mr. Campbell is most at home, and it is to this that the greater portion of his



book is devoted. He describes fully the ice-masses of Scandinavia and of the Alps. In every instance he enters into such minute detail that one may almost fancy oneself upon the spot, watching the author enthusiastically engaged in his explorations. We cannot say that we think he is quite correct in all his conclusions; but those who know anything of river-glaciers will appreciate the following graphic sketch:—

"It is a stream of half-melted ice and half-frozen water flowing from the base of a snow-dome in a hollow trench. It is freezing and thawing, hardening and melting, shrinking and stretching; but it is always sliding down in a rocky glen, which it grinds continually. The rate varies in summer and winter; the hotter it is the faster the ice moves; but there is no rest, though the movement is imperceptible. When ice gets down to the warmer regions which underlie the upper regions of cold, when it passes far enough under the line of 32°, the river-glacier melts and becomes a glacier-river. The water, heavy with mud, runs off to the sea, with a load of chips scraped out of the rock-groove by the ice; and, when it has dropped that load, water rises from the sea as vapour, and flies back to the hill-top to add to the snow-heap, and help to shove on the heavy ice-rasp which makes the solid age of this growing wheel."

There are very few works on physical geology which contain a generalization so comprehensively philosophic as the foregoing. Mr. Campbell has here shown the great powers of his mind, which are not content with the consideration of mere phenomena by themselves, but must seek still further for the grand laws which control the universe.

We note, however, some serious defects in the work before us. One of them we have referred to, but we would point out another. Mr. Campbell exercises his tendency to eccentricity too much when he employs symbols of his own devising to represent peculiarities of form. It is exceedingly painful, in reading an account of the configuration of a country, to find ordinary adjectives represented by curves and angles and other curious hieroglyphics, in learning the value of which there is considerable difficulty. Were it not for this, and for the absence of method which the author has betrayed in his writing, his work would be as valuable a scientific addition to our literature as it is unquestionably an interesting popular geological treatise. Had the author discharged his duty to the public as successfully as the publishers have theirs, we should have little fault to find.

#### PRATTLINGS FROM A PROVINCIAL PARNASSUS.\*

THERE are plenty of sensible, clever people in the provinces. It would indeed be very unfortunate if all the ability of the empire were concentrated in the metropolis, so as to leave the outlying districts in a state of atrophy. We should in that case deserve the reproach uttered as long ago as the time of Elizabeth, that England was like a rickety child, with a head too large for its body; and the head itself would very soon suffer from the failure in the limbs and trunk. When, however, small provincial towns take to being "literary," the result is generally dire. "Our gifted townsman" is perhaps the greatest nuisance under heaven, with one exception—and that is "our gifted townswoman." The simpering egotism that is developed in those little country coteries is something marvellous and lamentable. The way in which the respective geniuses walk about each other's drawing-rooms, and admire one another and themselves, and giggle and blush, and play their penny trumpets, and are magnificently self-complacent, is a spectacle for gods and men to laugh at or mourn over, according to their mood and temperament. The mental atmosphere of a small country town is at once too vapid and too pettily stimulating to develop the literary faculty in any worthy degree. A great man may, of course, be born in the poorest of country-towns—a very noteworthy man was once born in little Stratford-on-Avon; but the local genius is very soon attracted to London, and it is there that he is matured. If he did not go to London, he would very soon become a local lion; and local lions roar with the smallest of voices. Yet it is not simply, or chiefly, of the smallness of their voices that we complain; it is rather of the amazing pretence they make of astounding the universe, or of loftily declining to astound it on some pretence of modesty which is vainer than the vanity. Their very egotism is not strong—it has nothing vinous in its exaltation. It is rather as if one were to get feebly and flatulently exhilarated on ginger-beer. Provincial poetry, indeed, is very like ginger-beer. It is preserved in little bottles; it "goes off" with a mighty fuss, and fizz, and noise; and it is made up of froth and a tame residuum. Elderly ladies say it is a wholesome beverage, and boarding-school girls delight in it; but it is hardly drink for men.

Stockton-on-Tees has a poet; and, if Stockton-on-Tees is not proud of him, it is very evident that he is proud of himself. Not but what he has plenty of modesty, after that fashion of modesty which is like the humility of him who trampled on the pride of Plato, "but with greater pride." Whether in the way of self-congratulation or of deprecatory coyness, Mr. Baker knows extremely well how to play upon his own whistle. His preface is one of the most remarkable parts of his book. It consists of less than five

pages, yet it contains an amount of self-reference which, properly diluted, might serve for a volume. As it appears that Mr. Baker is now "launching" his poems (written during a period of many years) "on the stream of time," he probably considers that an autobiographical sketch will be useful to future generations. No doubt, there is something to say for it. How delighted we should be if Shakespeare had written such a preface, telling us all about himself, his habits and his tastes! But possibly he was not conscious of any specific act of "launching," and so omitted to make a speech and propose his own health. The genius of Stockton-on-Tees knows better. Critics and commentators of distant times shall not wrangle over the doings of W. B. Baker, for want of a little information from W. B. B. himself. No Charles Knight of three hundred years hence shall be forced to write "W. B. Baker, a Biography," of which the unfriendly shall say that it is only "W. B. Baker, a Romance." Know, then, all men, by these presents, that W. B. Baker, on the repeal of the "taxes on knowledge," set up a weekly paper called the *Stockton Herald*. His labours on that journal seem to have been Herculean. He has been "engaged daily (Sundays excepted), from morning till midnight, and often beyond that hour, in the arduous duties of editor, reporter, collator, accountant, collector, correspondent, &c., &c." For an editor to be his own correspondent seems to savour rather of Irish than of North of England journalism; yet Mr. Baker assures us that he was "himself the sole member of the literary staff usually employed upon a newspaper." Whether he served "the trade" in his own shop, and took down and put up his own shutters, does not appear, but may perhaps be darkly hinted at in the "&c., &c." However, in any case, there was one other duty which Mr. W. B. Baker performed in connection with his journal, and the fruits of which we now have before us. The *Stockton Herald* had a "Poet's Corner" (what provincial newspaper has not?), and Mr. Baker was his own poet as well as his own correspondent. Many of the productions contained in the present volume were, it appears, written "at the call of the printer," and set up before the ink was dry. We do not see, by the way, why blotting-paper should not have been used to dry the ink before handing the "copy" in to the compositors; but in cases of extreme urgency there may, perhaps, have been no time even for that. Never was poor poet so severely taxed. To write verses "at the call" of the printer (those who have never been at the mercy of that "call" hardly know what it is)—to furnish inspiration and rhymes at a moment's notice, with frequent interruptions of that importunate demand, "Copy, sir!" (the printer at such moments being stern and implacable as Fate)—and to do this after a whole day of editing, reporting, collating, account-keeping, collecting, "our own correspondent"-ising, and "et cætera"-ising—is certainly a feat more grievous than that of the dilapidated bard in Hogarth's print, who racks his brains in a garret to the shrewish accompaniment of a milk-woman demanding the settlement of arrears. The writing of a leading article towards the small hours is generally regarded as one of the most trying things in journalism; but what is that to making poetry to order, with the compositor at your elbow, seizing stanza by stanza before you have time to pass the blotting-paper over it! But let us see what was the training which enabled Mr. W. B. Baker to accomplish this arduous task. It seems that "his chief delight has been in the flowery fields, among the melody of the birds, the scent of flowers, and the hum of bees." Evidently, a man of rare tastes. "In childhood, nothing had a higher charm." Oh, W. B. B.! is not this going a little too far? Are you dealing with us quite ingenuously? Did not toffy and apples ravish your infant soul even more than the melody, the scent, and the hum? But he shall tell his own tale his own way. "For whole days has he wandered alone through woods, over lea and meadow, breasting the valley stream, or from the top of some favourite eminence mused upon the busy life that animated the scene below." What! in childhood? How frightened his poor mother must have been at missing him for so long! Then he had a love of poetry which could only be "allayed" by "the perusal of some new poem." In consequence of this passion, "the works of British poets possessed a charm which language cannot express." And here we note a curious literary parallel. Shakespeare first distinguished himself, when a youth, by writing a lampoon: so did Baker. "At the age of twelve years" (the more tardy genius of Stratford-on-Avon was a good deal older than this), "he essayed to write his first poem, which was a lampoon upon a gentleman who had rendered himself obnoxious to the author by a species of petty tyranny upon a widow with a large family, one of whom was a friend of the writer. Both the man and the poem are gone into oblivion." Oblivion, it is clear, has a good deal to answer for. "So far as can be remembered," continues the poet with pleasing candour, "it [the poem] was severe, it may be unjust, in personal remarks." We can readily believe it was both severe and personal, since those are the common characteristics of lampoons; and we are not surprised to learn that "the man was indignant." But, lest the reader should tremble for the consequences, let us hasten to repeat the author's assurance that "the secret was never developed." The satire, however, was so successful that "many parts of it were often shouted after the unfortunate fellow by the children in the neighbourhood." This, it might be supposed, would inflame the genius of the young poet; but, on the contrary, it "quieted the poetical fervour of the author for many years"—apparently because he feared a whipping, or the stocks, should he be discovered. Then, what once more waked to ecstasy the living lyre of Mr. W. B. Baker? We leave it to the ladies to say. They will not be slow in guessing; but, for the

\* Stray Leaves from Parnassus. Poems by W. B. Baker. Printed by the Author at his Office, Stockton-on-Tees. Published by W. Allen & Co., London.



enlightenment of our duller sex, let us record, in the words of the poet himself, that, when he next blazed forth with native warmth and radiance, "beauty and love had crossed his path," whereupon "the power came over him with irresistible fervour, and the approval of an amiable and accomplished woman gave inspiration to his pen." By a lamentable casualty, for which oblivion (or perhaps the lady herself) is again to blame, the effusions of his love have somehow vanished. "It is with regret he is obliged to confess" (how considerate of the reader's feelings is this mode of statement! he almost takes it upon himself as a crime) "that those efforts of his muse have been lost, with other juvenile memorials, which made no small sensation at the time of their appearance." Two stanzas, however, survive that portentous wreck, like the two Odes of Sappho. They are the seventh and eighth stanzas of "Cathedral Musings," and we gather from them that, in the opinion of the author, love is a very fine thing. "The theme," writes our ingenuous poet, "was an unfailing source of pleasurable composition;" and the satisfaction was increased by the author obtaining "the commendations of an accomplished lady"—whether the lady or not is left somewhat cloudy—"herself the writer of polished verses, and the oracle of a numerous circle." An oracle! oh, heaven!

Our Baker is rather erratic in the way in which he tells the story of his life. After these tender confessions of young manhood, he suddenly goes back to his childish days. "From earliest youth, the author has been enamoured with the beauties of poetical literature. The poems of Watts and Ann and Jane Taylor had a special delight for his infant mind. They were all committed to memory with a relish indescribable." A wonderful child indeed, to learn all Dr. Watt's hymns with an indescribable relish. "As he advanced in years, the 'Seasons' of Thomson, the poems of Collins and Gray, were learned by heart, every line of them." Subsequently, he "read with sober delight" the works of Southey, Coleridge, Moore, Byron, Wordsworth, Rogers, Montgomery (qy., James or Robert, or both?), and an unknown genius named Pratt. When the fair and oracular lady crossed his path, "the author was engaged amidst scenes of agriculture;" but, if this means that he was a farmer, we are afraid he must have neglected his business a good deal, for he tells us that he frequently "retired to the solitude of a beautiful and secluded glen, under the shade of majestic oaks." He describes the exact spot in which "he first really felt the inspiration of the muse," where he often lingered, and "dreamed the impassioned lay," besides reading many classical volumes (such as those of Pratt) "with a sublime zest." In a similar way, Mohammedan authors point to the cave on Mount Hara where the Prophet first received the messages of heaven. Our poet even now sometimes goes to his old retreat, and, though the trees have been cut down, he feels "the same excited pulse, the same fervent thought and indescribable power that passed over him in his happy youth." We should advise him not to go there often. When a man feels an excited pulse pass over him on visiting any place, it is high time that he turned his steps in some other direction.

Of our Baker's estimate of himself we have conflicting accounts. Twice he speaks of launching his productions on the stream of time. But then, on the other hand, "he does not lay claim to high merit in poetical literature; he has not written with any hope of fame." No; the poet of Stockton-on-Tees is a modest man. Shakespeare and Milton, and the rest of them, may lie calmly in their graves. W. B. Baker "does not profess to aspire to the bays in the foremost ranks of the muse." He is content to have amused himself by the strange process of "transcribing his mind in the garb of poetry." Yet how strong is the feeling of self-complacency appears very plainly in one of the notes at the end of the volume. "It has often been said," writes Mr. Baker, "that 'talent runs in families,' but this axiom will not hold good in every case. . . . Nevertheless, there are instances in which father and son, for more than one generation, have shown talent in some particular different to other men. It will not be denied that the author of this volume has shown a degree of poetical knowledge. If the *mens divinator* does not always glow 'in thoughts that breathe, and words that burn,' it must be acknowledged that the *cacothet* (sic) *scribendi* has not always impelled the writer." This is prefatory to an intimation that "a gift of a similar kind has pervaded several members of his family in a high degree." One of the author's sons, being strongly pervaded by the gift, improvised verses until he fainted. We do not wish to refer to this incident in a tone of levity, because it took place on the poor lad's death-bed; but it is really difficult to be serious in Mr. Baker's presence. A lady who was at the bedside took down some of these verses, and more sorry trash it would be impossible to conceive. Another son, who also died early, wrote at the age of fourteen a prize poem on "The Passage of the Children of Israel through the Dead Sea," and this, it must be admitted, shows considerable mastery over language and versification, considering the age of the writer. Then there is a sister of Mr. W. B. Baker, who is likewise given to playing on the lyre, and we have some specimens of her composition. In fact, it is quite a family volume, and the prevailing characteristics of the verse which it contains may be judged very safely and accurately from the little bits we have extracted from the prose confessions of the chief minstrel himself. Mr. Baker's strongest point is in his descriptions of country ways, for which we have no doubt he has a genuine feeling; but a few pretty or passable lines about trees and birds will not compensate for a heap of sentimental commonplaces on the serious concerns of life.

## THE WAR IN SOUTH AMERICA.\*

SOUTH AMERICAN politics are, to an Englishman, the most uninteresting of any on the surface of the globe. Indian affairs themselves are less distasteful; even the wranglings of Australian colonists over questions of land-tenure attract more of our attention, and very naturally, considering the stake our population has in the well-doing of those far dependencies. Last year, we read up the dreary Slesvig-Holstein question; but South America seems utterly removed beyond the pale of our sympathies. The issues involved are so obscure—the persons principally concerned are generally of such doubtful virtue—the actions are on so petty a scale, though played on a theatre of vast extent—and the whole business has so much the air of a species of squalid savagery making believe to be civilized,—that we turn from the subject with instinctive disgust. We either do not read the intelligence from South America at all, or we read it without deriving anything but a vague impression of endless anarchy and disreputable faction-fights. Probably, few Englishmen, even among the well-educated classes, have any definite ideas of South American geography, or of the relative positions and power of the several States. They have, perhaps, some few notions about the Empire of Brazil and the Republic of Peru (the latter chiefly associated with Pizarro, Rolla, and the Incas); but when they come to Bolivia, Chili, the Argentine Confederation, Paraguay, and the Banda Oriental, all is hopeless confusion and avowed ignorance. Yet here is a region of enormous size, of great natural beauty, of internal riches past counting, and of splendid capabilities in the way of commerce. If it were only well governed, so as to ensure the union of liberty with law, and the maintenance of peace among the various States, it might become of importance to the world generally; and, even as it is, the war now going on between Paraguay on the one hand, and Brazil and the Argentine Confederation on the other, possesses sufficient features of interest to render it desirable that the English public should know rather more about it than they can at present be said to do.

The anonymous writer of the pamphlet before us is evidently the advocate of Paraguay, and of the party of the Blancos in Uruguay, now dispossessed of power by their rivals, the Colorados, under the lead of General Flores, the existing President. His statements and arguments must, therefore, be received with as many grains of salt as the case may seem to require, especially as the view he presents is far from harmonizing with that which we have hitherto been led to regard as true. But his relation of the facts is very clear and straightforward, and we are the less disinclined to listen to him as he is championing the weaker side. It must be conceded that Uruguay has for some time been making a stand for independence against its two powerful neighbours, and certainly Paraguay has shown no little gallantry in going to its assistance. To comprehend the case, it must be borne in mind that Uruguay, or the Banda Oriental—sometimes also called Monte Video, from its capital—is a small Republic, seated on the South Atlantic Ocean, which borders it to the east, and bounded on the north by Brazil, on the west by La Plata, or the Argentine Confederation, and on the south by the Rio de la Plata. Like most other South American States, Uruguay has been torn by civil dissensions, and Brazil has given her countenance and help to the party of Flores, the President who was recently reinstated in power, as against Aguirre, the late President. Brazil, it will be remembered, is a slave-holding State; and whenever any of her bondsmen have fled on to Uruguayan soil, the proprietors have not hesitated to follow and seize them there, and it is even said that armed bodies of Brazilians have frequently made irruptions into the territory of the little Republic, pillaged farms, stolen cattle, and kidnapped free citizens. This has, of course, led to reprisals, and a great deal of bad blood has sprung up between Uruguay and Brazil. Moreover, according to our present authority, the Brazilians, during the late presidency of Aguirre, gave actual military assistance to the malcontent Colorados, under the then rebel Flores. Unfortunately, they seem to have a technical right to interfere in case of civil war in the Banda Oriental, for, in the treaties of 1828, 1851, and 1859, by which Brazil, after certain ruptures, agreed to recognise the independence of Uruguay, she reserved to herself, and was permitted to reserve, the right of intervention in, and of supervision of the constitution of, the neighbouring Republic. The interventions in question, however, seem to have been of a very irregular kind, and to have been prompted by Souza Netto, a Brazilian slave-owner who made common cause with Flores. It is alleged by Brazil that some of her subjects were from time to time ill-used in Uruguay, and that the arms over the Brazilian Vice-Consulate at Tacuarembó had been insolently torn down and dragged through the streets; and, although the Uruguayan Government denied the truth of these representations, a very peremptory ultimatum was sent to the latter on the 4th of August, 1864, accompanied by an intimation that, unless satisfaction were given within six days, the Brazilian army, already stationed on the frontier, would proceed to make reprisals. The Minister for Foreign Affairs of Uruguay, considering the terms of the ultimatum insulting, returned the note to the Brazilian Government, but at the same time made a proposal for arbitration. This proposal was not accepted, and on the 12th of October the Brazilian forces invaded and occupied Uruguay. In the meanwhile, however, Paraguay (a small republic to the north of Uruguay, from which it is separated by a portion of the Argen-

\* Paraguay and the War in La Plata. London: Edward Stanford.



tine Confederation) had protested against any occupation by Brazil of Uruguayan territory, and hinted at reprisals, should the occupation take place. On the invasion of the Oriental Republic by the Imperial forces, Paraguay proceeded at once—and certainly without giving sufficient notice to Brazil—to seize a Brazilian passenger steamer, and to occupy the province of Matto Grosso. As between Uruguay and her powerful neighbour, the contest was most unequal, and on the 20th of last February President Aguirre was deposed by the victorious Imperialists, and General Flores was put in his place. Since then, Uruguay has been the ally of Brazil in the war with Paraguay. The Argentine Confederation has also been drawn into the struggle on the side of Brazil. On the 5th of February, 1865, the Paraguayan Government requested the Argentine Government to grant leave to their armies to cross the province of Corrientes (a part of the Confederation lying between Paraguay and Uruguay), in order that the war against Brazil might be carried on. We cannot be surprised that the Argentine Government, being on friendly relations with that of Brazil, refused such a request, though its conduct would have been more unimpeachable had it acted with better faith towards Uruguay, against which it had for some time past been making a species of covert war. However, Paraguay, on the 29th of last March, declared war against the Argentine Confederation; and on the 13th of April the province of Corrientes was occupied, steamers were seized, and the war was vigorously prosecuted on the river Parana. In this respect also, the Paraguayan Government is accused of precipitancy in the resort to hostilities, but apparently with less reason. On the 1st of May, a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance was concluded by Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and Uruguay under the Presidentship of Flores, for carrying on the war against Paraguay; and more recently we have had news of the defeat of the Paraguayan fleet by the Brazilians, of the temporary success of the Paraguayans by land, and of their subsequent discomfiture by General Flores. The last intelligence leaves no reason to doubt that Paraguay—a State no larger than the Banda Oriental—must succumb before so formidable an alliance as that directed against it; and, indeed, the Argentine Minister some time ago told our representative, Mr. Thoratton, that “he hoped he should live to see Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay, and the Argentine Republic united in one Confederation, and forming a powerful Republic in South America.” If not politically powerful, such a State would certainly be of enormous size.

It is generally held in this country that Paraguay wishes to obstruct the navigation of the river so called, skirting its territory to the west, and of the river Parana, skirting it to the east, into which the other river falls below the southern limits of the State. The pamphleteer we are reviewing asserts the contrary. Paraguay, he says, has, since the death in 1840 of the celebrated Dr. Francia, contended for the freedom of the rivers, which, being in connection with the Rio de la Plata, whose mouth opens on to the Atlantic, are most important in a commercial and strategical sense. Brazil, he alleges, has always been against that freedom, and, although the Argentine Government has been favourably disposed, it has hitherto been checked by Buenos Ayres, one of the Confederation. We read in the pamphlet before us:—

“The mouth of La Plata being the key to the possession of all the territory watered by that river, it was but natural to think that the States, whose foreign relations are altogether dependent on the freedom of navigation of that river, would watch with extreme suspicion the movements of any power which might, sooner or later, imperil their own sovereignty. Prominent among these is Paraguay. Brazil has an extensive sea-coast, and the Amazon, which traverses nearly the entire breadth of South America. Uruguay has Monte Video; and the Argentine Republic has Buenos Ayres, with sea-ports open to the world. But Paraguay is blocked up in the interior, and her very existence depends on the navigation of the Parana and the Paraguay, and on the perfect neutrality of Rio de la Plata. Shut up this outlet,—or, what is the same thing, let it become the possession of a power adverse to Paraguay,—and her existence is at once endangered.”

We give the Paraguayans the benefit of these statements and arguments, because it is right to hear both sides; but it is so difficult to arrive at the exact truth in such distant and half-civilized regions that we shall forbear from endorsing what may possibly be a too partial representation. With respect to the collateral issues, the writer says:—

“Hitherto Uruguay formed a barrier to the extension of internal slavery in the River Plate territory. Let Brazil take permanent possession of that State, and have supreme influence in her Government, and slavery will, sooner or later, be practically extended to that country also. Only quite recently, a proposition was made in the Brazilian Senate for the partial abolition of slavery—a proposal, indeed, quite unworthy of the great object in view; but it found no supporters. The Government has certainly abolished the slave trade, but men of colour within the empire are still held in a state of slavery. The contract of labour is little understood among the great masses.

“Then there is the question of finances. We have seen that both Paraguay and the Argentine Republic had given power to their respective Presidents to contract loans. Paraguay is not likely to be in the European market, but the Argentine Republic looks to London for it; and M. Riestra, the Vice-Governor of Buenos Ayres, has been sent on a special mission to this country for the purpose. How does the matter stand as regards Argentine finances? Buenos Ayres is, since 1824, indebted for £1,000,000, for which all the goods, revenue, lands, and territory of the formerly independent Republic of Buenos Ayres are pledged; and we know what difficulties the bondholders

had to secure the large amount of interest due, the payment of which was suspended for so many years. What is singular in this loan is, that, whilst the amount was lent for the benefit of the Argentine Republic as a nation, the bonds are simply municipal bonds of Buenos Ayres.”

Amidst much uncertainty, one thing is clear—that the States of South America give no sign of rising out of that condition of petty warfare and turbulence in which they have been immersed so long.

#### NEW NOVELS.\*

On the principle that the great American sea-serpent was “half a man, half a horse, and half an alligator,” “Dharma” may be said to be half musical, half mystical, and half political. The problem which the writer appears to have placed before her—namely, how to blend a dim perception of the doctrines of ascetic quietism peculiar to the Buddhist, and to some branches of Brahminical theology, with the routine life and rather “horsy” predilections of the Yorkshire squirearchy, and a conservative appreciation of mediæval art in ecclesiastical architecture with a well-balanced admiration of operatic and mass music, mingled with an over-boiling enthusiasm for Garibaldi and his red-shirted crew—is one, it will readily be granted, by no means deficient in whatever attractions novelty and difficulty may of themselves present. That the critic should be able conscientiously to congratulate the author on the felicity of this design, or upon the harmonious consistency of its various parts one with another, is hardly to be expected. “Dharma,” the heroine, is the daughter of a Dissenting missionary, of good English family, in Ceylon; and, being born in that island, is so called from the title (signifying truth) of a Buddhist work in process of translation by her pious and revered father. He, however, already some time a widower, dies from over-exertion in his calling before the completion of his literary labours, and the orphan child is taken home, and provided for by a kind old Buddhist convert of the deceased missionary. Into her mind are gradually, and insensibly as it were, instilled many of the profound teachings of the pure and peaceful faith her instructor formerly professed, both in its practical and speculative aspects, along with the loftier, more solid, and more ennobling truths which are the glory of the Christian religion. From Ceylon she is transferred, while yet a child, to the North Riding, where, upon an old, ancestral estate of secularized abbey lands, she becomes acquainted with English Protestantism and country life. Thence, after the lapse of some time, she proceeds to Paris for the completion of her education, which she satisfactorily accomplishes by marrying—being requested to do so—an Italian count of German extraction, or a German count of Italian ditto (it does not clearly appear which), by name Angelo De Graffenstein. Very learned, studious, reserved, kind, accomplished, and patriotic, with a weakness, nevertheless, for political conspiracy, this hybrid, if high-bred, noble is suddenly reported killed in a scuffle with the police on the Neapolitan frontier; leaving an only son with his disconsolate widow, who, in the meantime, retires to Yorkshire, where, after a reasonable interval, moved with the profound desire to inaugurate a feeling of fellowship between the Catholic and Protestant sections of the religious world, she allures into marriage with her a wealthy Yorkshire Papist, whose monomania it is to figure as a married monk, and discharge the duties of both conditions of life, without in the one case bringing scandal on his Church, or in the other on his wife, in view of certain contingencies. In what manner he executes this delicate manoeuvre, with the skill of a Jesuit, and the luck of the imputed patron of that order, is a mystery better reserved for the reader's self-enlightenment. How everything—fêtes, balls, yachting excursions, the entertainments of modern palaces and the seclusion of ancient ruins, love successful and love disappointed, poverty and abundance, the imprisonment of one husband and the world-wide travels of another—how, in fact, all plans and accidents alike combine to bring about the superhuman glory of Garibaldi's entrance into Naples, and the showers of flowers and fireworks therefrom resulting, can only be fitly told by the author. The incarceration of the lady herself, twice widowed, and the unlooked-for restoration to life and freedom of her first spouse, long considered to be defunct, are likewise amongst the more prominent features of a story in which, along with occasionally just reflections, and estimable aspirations for the spread, amongst devout minds, of the spirit of true Catholicity, there is much that is wild, defective, and incongruous. A design more definite, if more limited, would have been better suited to the author's powers, and probably not less agreeable to the taste of the majority of readers. To endeavour to represent in one work the extreme depths of metaphysical thought, and the extreme violence of physical and political action, is an unnatural and ill-considered design, impossible to be satisfactorily accomplished.

“The Lawyer's Purpose” is a work purporting to be the history of a professional gentleman, whose misdeeds, if distributed among

\* Dharma; or, Three Phases of Love. By E. Paulet. Three vols. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

The Lawyer's Purpose. A Novel. By James Leitch. Two vols. London: John Maxwell & Co.

The Wrong Letter. A Novel. Three vols. London: T. C. Newby.

Wild Times; a Tale of the Days of Queen Elizabeth. Three vols. London: Murray & Co.

Grey's Court. Edited by Lady Chatterton. Two vols. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.



the average number of criminals within the walls of a county gaol at the period of the assizes, would assuredly justify his lordship in remarking to the grand jury—"I am sorry, gentlemen, to find yours is a very heavy calendar." Murder, forgery, perjury, subornation of witnesses, frauds upon revenue, obtaining money under false pretences, attempted abduction, burglary, sacrilege, breach of trust, highway robbery, firing at another with intent to kill, escape from gaol, and, lastly, suicide,—besides a variety, by no means pleasing, of minor offences unhappily not cognizable by the law, such as the plotted ruin, social and pecuniary, of two wealthy houses his clients, and the personal intimidation of his ward, the *prima donna* of the narrative,—are among the acknowledged qualifications of the hero for the fate he so amply merits, but finally so adroitly escapes. While the rascality of the principal character, it may be thought from the preceding sketch, is a little overdrawn, and while we are quite inclined to look upon his mode of procedure as somewhat exceptional in the profession, the merit of the work undoubtedly consists in the clear and tangible character of the narrative, its general coherency, and, the villany of the delinquent being granted, the unrestrained sequence of occurrences. As "the first-fruits of literary labour," the work gives a promise of better things, which increased experience in life and art will in all likelihood fulfil.

The number of characters introduced into "The Wrong Letter" constitutes quite a crowd; while, of course, many needless complications of the plot are thereby engendered, without in the slightest degree heightening the suspense, or enhancing the interest, of the main action. Based upon such an incident as the accidental error of inclosing a letter in a wrong envelope, the scope of the story would have been more fitly confined within the limits of a single volume; particularly as the reader can scarcely avoid feeling the origin of the mistake to be, in an artistic point of view, inconsistent with the ostensible character of the hero. That Sir Arthur Leigh, who is drawn as a model of filial duty, and of fidelity to his betrothed, should, while his mother is on her deathbed, relying solely on his affectionate attendance, and while he is in earnest correspondence with his lady respecting the future arrangements of their wedded life, enter at the same moment into an immoral intrigue with an Italian singer, is a circumstance not incompatible, perhaps, with ordinary experience, but glaringly so with the character of the *preux chevalier* alluded to. Sir Arthur, unfortunately convicted by that luckless medium, "the wrong letter" previously named, of his *liaison* with the young Italian, is promptly and peremptorily rejected by his intended as soon as she becomes aware of the fact; and in the implied propriety and praiseworthiness of this step is enshrined the important moral which the work is doubtless written to illustrate. We cannot but think, however, that this moral is worked out with a certain hardness, not quite consistent with Christian charity.

"Wild Times" is the not very happy title of a story relating to the period immediately succeeding the Reformation in England, while the Romish faith was still professed by considerable numbers both of the gentry and commonalty. Although so great a benefit to the English people, and, it may be said, in consequence, to the world, the more enlightened consciences of men in these days would certainly shrink from the employment or approval of much of the secondary means adopted for securing the triumph of the cause, however righteous and advantageous in itself. The penal and bigoted legislation introduced by the despotic patron of the Reformed religion, and, in too many instances, its interested and self-seeking supporters—the system of domestic treachery and state persecution, alike made use of by public informers and other unscrupulous villains, who, by means of fines and penalties, gorged themselves iniquitously on the prey they had first run down in the name of the law—are things which the strictest and most reactionary, or the laxest and most profligate, of politicians in any European State of our own day, would be equally ashamed to avow. In the present story, the peculiar condition and transitional features of English society during the early Elizabethan era, and under the influence of Secretary Walsingham, are strikingly exemplified. The two brothers Glenthorne—one, a priest, who, like all others of his class, is forbidden the country under pain of death; the elder, head of an ancient and wealthy family true to the old religion—sacrifice themselves with a generous rivalry, for each other and for conscience-sake. Their sister, and the betrothed of the elder brother, who are possessed with a like sincere devotion to pure and lofty principles, embodied both in the faith of their forefathers and the affectionate hearts of their own noble cavaliers, are the principal personages, all amiable and honourable, of a fiction in which also an informer, a family spy, a covetous, unprincipled peer, and a gipsy queen, play more or less important, and in some respects scarcely subordinate, parts. Into a detail of the plot we do not propose to enter, the narrative, as a whole, being more recommended by the pathos of its sentiments than the probability of its incidents. The conversation of the ill-fated prisoners, both in the Tower of London and elsewhere, and when in hourly expectation of their unjust punishment, is at times deeply impressive, being Catholic truth delivered with Protestant liberality; while the circumstances attending the execution and projected rescue, and indeed the entire division of the action in which Ulrique, the gipsy queen, is concerned, are as unnatural and improbable as the most extravagant sample of penny journalistic fiction could furnish. The introduction of this species of agency, now almost universally tabooed, is a blemish difficult to excuse in a work otherwise not without some good claims on our respect.

A tale beginning in the form of an autobiography, enriched by diaries, illuminated copiously by chasms of asterisks, and ulti-

mately completed in a series of fragments, with editorial notes by the heroine's grandson, it is not likely that a critic will lay down with any very marked compliment to the author's constructive ability. Without exactly assuming murder and bigamy as its starting-point, "Grey's Court" depends for its interest on the supposed homicide of one cousin by another for the sake of large possessions and a wealthy bride, and on the double marriage, i.e., in succession, of the fair lady in question to each of the two sons of separate uncles, embittered towards each other by an old family feud. We are introduced to the amiable heiress as a school-girl pouting over her lessons; we have the satisfaction of beholding her twice wedded, and in the end take leave of her as a grandmother in spectacles. She has a rare combination of gifts, beauty, wealth, common sense, high moral principle, great intelligence, and a good physical constitution. In the plot there is nothing very new. That a youth and girl, considered by all about them, and by themselves from their infancy, as engaged to be married, should manifest a little mutual indifference, and treat each other as consins rather than lovers when one of them, at least, has begun to be conscious of personal attractions, and is naturally desirous of a little more attention, and of another kind, to that prevalent in the nursery and the schoolroom, is a not unfrequent occurrence in fact or fiction; nor that the advent of a third actor on the scene, elegant in manner, accomplished—not without hopes nor purposes of his own—should, by deep-laid schemes and graceful flatteries, succeed in establishing a permanent interest in the heart of a forlorn little mortal, born to only five thousand a year. The unaccountable disappearance of the original lover, simultaneously with the arrival of the second, and the doubt whether the latter be or be not responsible for the strange and, in its uncertainty, distressing event above indicated, forms the enigma of the tale, and is not unskillfully sustained. Smugglers, priests, French *émigrés*, rakes, duellists, gaolers, and the Reign of Terror in France as a background, are additional elements, personal and social, in a story which, notwithstanding its defects, is not wholly devoid of interest, and which gives proof occasionally of acute observation and sound reflection.

#### LESSONS ON HUNTING AND SPORTING.\*

"SCRUTATOR'S" work is a series of desultory sketches and observations spun out of such very flimsy materials as hardly to be entitled to assume the name of Lessons. From this criticism, however, we must except the chapter on the management of the horse, which, contrasted with the rest of the volume, well illustrates the distinction between writing because one has something to say, and writing to say something. Our author commences by justly condemning the harshness of our treatment of horses, particularly in breaking them, and contrasts the result with that obtained by the Arabs, whose equine favourites are as quiet, gentle, and intelligent as Newfoundland dogs, and suffer their masters' children to crawl and scramble over them as secure from injury as if they were playing with a pet lamb. Are we not, then, warranted in concluding that the great drawback to the development of the sagacity and sensibility natural to the horse is the rough and brutal usage he experiences from the very commencement of his education? Rough usage will create rough tempers, as a general rule, whether applied to man, woman, or child, horse or dog, or any other animal. Again, "look at the life of the hunter—it is one of almost solitary confinement in his loose box during the season. What communication has he with others of his own species, save when at exercise or in the field? and yet his nature is not like that of the bullock—dull, heavy, and sluggish—but lively, sociable, and animated." No animal but the dog surpasses the horse in his capacity for attachment to man; but the cruel treatment to which he is subjected as soon as it is sought to render his services available obscure his noble qualities and great sagacity, and approximate him in temper and disposition to the brute from whom he receives his education. No pains are taken to gain the confidence of the young animal upon his entering on a new and strange sphere of life; and, instead of being encouraged and caressed, and treated with firmness, coolness, patience, and good temper, harshness and force are the methods commonly resorted to for teaching him his first lessons by the class so appropriately designated by the name of *rough riders*. "I have," says "Scrutator," "bought old horses, their dispositions soured and tempers spoilt by inhuman treatment; vicious kickers, biters, almost unmanageable; and these, within a few months, by firm, kind treatment, instructed by the voice, never by whip or spur, have become entirely reformed characters, and obedient to my word in the hunting-field, for I seldom rode with spurs, being thoroughly satisfied that a good generous horse will do his utmost for a good master without prick of steel or blow of stick." Equally sound and rational is the advice given by our author as to feeding, stabling, &c., and no less so his condemnation of the system of physicking once so prevalent, and still periodically employed by some ignorant grooms, who are never so happy as when exhibiting aloetic balls, cordial balls, and alterative powders, or drenching the poor animals with diaphoretic or diuretic medicines—a practice which cannot be too much deprecated, and by which the constitutions of thousands of horses have been irretrievably ruined. Sounder and more enlightened views are now beginning to prevail, and the horse participates with his owner in the benefit arising

\* Practical Lessons on Hunting and Sporting. By Scrutator. London: Chapman & Hall.



from substituting attention to the laws of hygiene for the pernicious practice of drugging. The first great rule to be observed in the feeding of horses is to regulate their diet by their work. The process of getting a horse into condition should be gradual. On first coming from grass, no exercise beyond a walk should be allowed; but, by gradually increasing the diet and exercise, a horse, with judicious treatment, may be got ready for the hunting-field in three months. We need hardly say that, to preserve their health, horses, like mankind, require fresh air. Stables must be kept well ventilated, and only moderately warm. Without great attention to the cleanliness and ventilation of the stable, it is unreasonable to expect good health in horses. Such old abominations as stables the atmosphere of which reeks with ammonia, so as to make the eyes smart, cannot co-exist with even tolerable ventilation and cleanliness, and are not only quite incompatible with the health of the horses, but are likely seriously to affect their eyesight. "Scrutator" strongly recommends that the day after hunting a few carrots should be given about twelve o'clock, as having a great tendency to keep a horse in a healthy and cool state of body after severe work, and to improve rather than deteriorate his condition. He also justly reprobates as irrational and injurious the all but universal and cruel practice of stinting horses in their allowance of water. The aversion of many grooms to allow a horse to drink freely is quite extraordinary, whilst the denial of an adequate supply of water to animals exhausted by perspiration and fatigue has a direct tendency to induce a feverish state of the system. A hunter should have a fair allowance of water the very morning he is to carry his master hunting, or he will be in a state of fever before the day is half over.

#### THE SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS.

The *Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science* is below the average in point of interest. The first paper is by Mr. Alfred Sanders, and is devoted to the consideration of the anatomy of certain of our common air-breathing mollusks. Those of our readers familiar with this subject are aware that the structure and physiology of the two commonest of these creatures—*Lemna* and *Helix*—have already been explored and published by Dr. Henry Lawson. The writer of the present paper, who appears, without much reason, to differ from the views of the latter anatomist, has given a sort of *rechaussé* of his own and others observations; but, when we state that the reproductive anatomy of three distinct species is described in seven and a half pages, naturalists will attach a due value to the memoir. Mr. Sanders seems to possess an easy method of disposing of the arguments of other writers. For example, he states that in one place an artery has been taken for a duct, and, in another, a nerve has led to a similar blunder; but he omits to reveal to us the happy means by which those difficulties of discrimination were overcome by himself. In a contribution on new and rare diatoms, Dr. Greville, one of our best authorities, describes a new genus, which he has named *Heibergia*, in honour of the Danish savant, Dr. Heiberg, and several new species. Mr. Browning gives an account of an application of the spectroscope to the microscope, by means of which extremely minute portions of substances may be chemically examined. He exhibited to one of the Society's meetings an almost microscopic spot of blood upon a card, which displayed the absorption bands in the most perfect manner. The original communication upon the structure of the horse's hoof, by Mr. Hepworth, is hardly the sort of paper for the *Microscopical Journal*. The descriptions of structure are far too vague, and the writer is evidently unacquainted with tegumentary homologies. We would especially commend to his attention Mr. Huxley's essay in "The Cyclopædia of Anatomy and Physiology," a perusal of which will, we think, tend considerably to modify his opinions concerning what he terms the reactory action of the villi.

The *Dublin Quarterly Journal of Science* is a *Quarterly sui generis*; it contains the best papers read before the several scientific societies of Dublin, and is published at the expense of their associations, and circulated gratuitously in every portion of the globe, from the public library of St. Helena to the *Universitäts Bibliothek* of St. Petersburg. Besides long and important essays upon "The Icebergs of the Southern Hemisphere," by Dr. Barry; "The Value of Chemical Manures," by Mr. Waller; and "Comparison of the Rocks of South-West Ireland, North Devon, and Rhenish Prussia," by Professor Jukes,—it contains a most useful paper on "Dr. Edmunds's System of Ventilation," by Dr. J. M. Barry. The system of aëration described is especially applicable to ships, large public buildings, hospitals, &c., and has been employed in some of the vessels of the Royal Navy with the greatest benefit. The air is caused to circulate by means of jets of steam, and the effects have been most beneficial. Thus, while in some Australian passenger-ships one-third of the children under five years have died, "in the Commissioners' ships fitted with Dr. Edmunds's apparatus, worked by a steam jet, the results have been truly gratifying, some of the vessels—the *General Caulfield*, for instance—not losing any children."

In the *Popular Science Review* we find articles upon almost every branch of science, and we observe also that in each department the subjects discussed are those which are engaging attention at the time they are written. Mr. Robert Hunt opens the number with a very interesting and profitable paper upon "Atlantic Telegraphy," in which, with the assistance of two well-executed plates, he shows us the difference between the present and former Atlantic cables, and points out the characters of most of the submarine cables which have been successfully laid down in other parts of the globe. Dr. Lankester, the coroner for Central Middlesex, follows with a long essay upon pure water. In this—although there is not much that can be said to be absolutely new—there is a good deal which merits the

notice of the public. Many of our epidemics—and especially cholera (which, unfortunately, is already doing its work of destruction at Southampton) are propagated, if not produced, by bad water. "In the year 1854," says the Doctor, "cholera ravaged the metropolis. Up to August 31st of that year, not more than twenty cases had occurred in the parish of St. James, Westminster. On that night, upwards of 100 cases of cholera occurred in the neighbourhood of Broad-street, Golden-square, and more than half died. The next day the disease increased, and for four days it went on. Never was such mourning and desolation known in London since the days of the Great Plague. Upwards of 600 persons were killed in those five days. What could be the cause of this terrible outbreak? At first all was confusion. In the midst of the plague, the late Dr. Snow accused the pump in Broad-street. It was shut up, and the plague ceased." Professor Galliver affords botanists a great treat by summing up the results of all his observations upon the subject of plant-crystals in the form of a most attractively-written paper on "Raphides." Next we have the now much-discussed question of the origin of lake-basins, undertaken by Professor Ansted, who shows us, in his usual pleasing style, that ice-action is not to be regarded as the sole agent, but that glaciers, ordinary erosion, and the ruptures produced during upheaval, have all contributed in forming our present lakes. "Epidemics" is the title of an anonymous contribution, which gives a useful summary of our present knowledge of this class of diseases: the philosophy of the subject, however, has not been fairly dealt with—a circumstance which may account for the absence of the writer's name. Mr. E. Ray Lankester writes upon the anatomy of an insect larva. Mr. Bowen, of the "Observatory," gives us a profitable essay upon the geographical features of the moon. The Editor, Dr. Lawson, concludes the number with a paper on some of the applications of photography, in which he tells us that the instruments at the Royal Observatory are now self-registering, and record their labours in unerring photographs, and explains the principle of photo-engraving, the crystal-cut miniature, and other novelties of the photographic art. The plates, which are five in number, are carefully done, and the reviews and report of scientific progress extend over more than fifty pages.

The most remarkable article in the *Geological Magazine* is one from the pen of Mr. Carruthers, of the British Museum, upon a peculiar fossil vegetable structure recently found in the coal-beds of Lanarkshire. It is a kind of fir-cone, but differs materially from the ordinary form, or *Lepidostrobus*; hence Mr. Carruthers has given it the new generic name of *Flemingilis*, in honour of the late Professor Fleming. Both *Flemingilis* and *Lepidostrobus* are the fruit of certain *Lepidodendria*, but the new genus differs from the old one in having several sporangia on each scale of the cone. Mr. Sorby communicates his views upon the nature and origin of meteorites, and sums up his conclusions thus:—"I therefore conclude provisionally that meteorites are records of the existence in planetary space of physical conditions more or less similar to those now confined to the immediate neighbourhood of the sun, at a period indefinitely more remote than that of the occurrence of any of the facts revealed to us by the study of geology—at a period which might, in fact, be called pre-terrestrial."

A good deal of interesting reading is to be found in the *Intellectual Observer*. Mr. Thomas Wright, in continuing his papers on pottery, gives an account of the Roman relics at Upchurch. Speaking of the extent of the Roman potteries, he says we may judge of their extent from the fact that they reach along the river from Rainham to the Swale, between five and six miles, and inwards, on an average, from a mile to a mile and a half. "This bed of pottery is nowhere seen to more advantage than at Otterham Creek, which winds up to near Upchurch Church. To explore this creek with any success, you must enter it with a boat at low water, when a large extent of clay is left uncovered, which you can only walk upon, or rather into, with long waterman's boots, and you soon reach the layer of pottery beneath by means of a stick, or, which is the most effective method, by thrusting your hand and arm into the clay, when you may pull up almost as much pottery as you like." In Mr. Rossetti's critical description of the miniatures at the South Kensington Museum, we perceive a good deal that is irrational, with traces here and there of dogmatic assertion. Some of the sketches, however, are terse and pointed. Writing of Robespierre, he observes, "The face is an unmistakably clever one, with something of the smile and aspect of Voltaire, and a great air of self-confidence, trenching upon self-applause. There is a direct look in the eyes, not at all suggesting an abject or malignant nature; both they and the eyebrows are dark, the hair powdered, the costume neither dandified nor slovenly. This portrait does not in any degree confirm Carlyle's famous term for Robespierre, 'sea-green incorruptible'; on the contrary, the complexion is full-coloured, trenching upon sanguine. Marat's portrait the writer describes as being a head-and-shoulders one, done on a largish scale for a miniature; 'he looks an 'ugly customer' for anybody to argue with or make an impression upon.' The miniature of Tintoretto, painted by himself, represents the great artist at the early age of fifteen. Mr. Rossetti considers that there is some reason to doubt the authenticity of this portrait, which, if proved to be genuine, would be of great interest. "Notes on Fungi," and a paper on the iris of certain fishes, are also good articles.

The first article in the *Journal of Botany* is upon the "Nomenclature of the British Hepaticæ," and is written by Mr. William Carruthers. This is of too technical a character to admit of our dwelling upon it. We may, however, mention that its object is to correct those errors of arrangement and nomenclature which have appeared in works upon the Hepaticæ, and to prove that much of our knowledge of the relations of these plants to each other is due to the researches of Mr. S. F. Gray. Mr. Ernst fills some sixteen pages with a list of Venezuelan medicinal plants, and these two papers may be said to form the entire number. We cannot think that the managers of this journal display much discretion in their conduct of it. It is surely unwise to allow an article which is of value solely for purposes of reference to occupy the half of an entire number. The notes and memoranda are the most interesting feature of the *Journal of Botany*.



In these we see a communication from Mr. A. B. Church, alleging that the legume of the common bean possesses two minute apertures, by which air can travel into and out of the pod, thus preventing the dehiscence of the fruit, which would otherwise ensue during the process of drying.

The medical portion of the proceedings of the British Association take up at least two-thirds of the present number of the *Social Science Review*. As, however, this has been already supplied in the daily and other papers, there is no need to comment on it. "The Visit to the Familistery, or Workman's Home, of M. Godin-Lemaire, at Guise," is the very *beau idéal* of a social science article. The writer shows us what some of our great manufacturers might do to improve the domestic and moral condition of the labourers, and concludes with the hope that we may soon see inscribed on the foundation stone of the first English familistery the mottoes M. Godin inscribed upon his:—"Dien nous soit en aide—Hommes soyez-nous favorables." The editorial review of the present state of our sanitary statistics is an ably-written onslaught upon the existing method of registering deaths. It is melancholy that we are in the position, as regards sanitary statistics, which the following remarks indicate:—"In 1858, Dr. Farre supplied us with valuable statistics on the subject. 8,734 persons died, and were buried in that year without any record—whether from medical practitioner, coroner, casual informant, nurse, or kin—of the nature of the last illness or injury; that is to say, 1.94 per cent. of the total deaths in the year. But the number buried without any medical or legal report of the 'cause' was far greater. Dr. Farre confessed it to be 20 per cent., or more than ten times the number of those in which no statement whatever of the mode of death was registered. 'It is near the truth, said he, that the nature of that [last] illness was described by men professionally qualified to give the information in about 80 per cent. of the total number of deaths.' 87,000 persons at least were, therefore, buried in that year without a medical certificate." The writer opposes very strongly, and, as it seems to us, with much justice, the suggestion recently made by Dr. Lankester, that medical men, in consideration of what the State does for them, would not object to undertake, "as one of the conditions of their registration, to give certificates of all deaths and births in which their professional services have been required." We entirely agree with the writer in considering that such a suggestion, if carried out, would be an "oppressive certainty," while the advantages conferred on the profession by the Government would be very "problematical."

*Hardwicke's Science Gossip* has profited by our advice, and contains in this number, besides its usual stock of natural history articles, a well-written and accurate, though popularly given, explanation of polarized light. The other papers are of the usual character.

The *Ethnological Journal* contains an important paper by M. A. Vámbéry, upon the "Origin of the Hungarians." This we commend to our readers' notice. We cannot say as much for the other contents, some of which are as absurdly unphilosophic as it is possible to imagine. We suppose the editor is not to blame for this; but we think that, in cases where remarkable arguments are produced, something more than the writer's initials should be appended to the essay.

The *Ophthalmic Review* holds its usual position as the organ of German scientific men. The article on cataract glasses, however, is instructive, for it shows us, contrary to the teachings of the Editor, that "accommodation" is sometimes preserved after the removal of the lens.

The *Artizan* and *Newton's Journal of the Arts* supply us with a host of mechanical papers, which space does not permit us to summarize.

#### SHORT NOTICES.

*The Iron Ship-builders', Engineers', and Iron-merchants' Guide and Assistant.* Carefully Compiled and Thoroughly Revised by Harrison Burlinson and William Henry Simpson. (McCorquodale & Co.)—Though most portentous-looking to all who are unaccustomed to deal with figures, we have no doubt that this volume will be found extremely useful by those who require to know at a moment's notice the solid contents in cubic feet of a plate of iron of certain given dimensions, with a view to forming an estimate of the cost of any contemplated piece of work. The book compiled by Messrs. Burlinson and Simpson contains the calculated weights of 154,453 different sizes of iron-plates. It consists of 219 pages, each presenting fifteen columns of figures, and each column extending to 55 lines in length. The authors state that the tables have been worked out on the basis of forty pounds to the square foot of iron one inch in thickness (the fractional difference being so small that it has been ignored); and the volume contains the calculated weight of every size of plate used in iron ship-building, from 1 ft. x 6 in. x  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. to 10 ft. x 5 ft. x 1 in. "From the calculations mentioned," say Messrs. Burlinson and Simpson, "the weight of a plate of any size whatever (provided the sides be without curve) may be ascertained; as, for instance: supposing the weight of a plate be required, the dimensions of which are 9 ft. 3 in. x 24 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. x 13 in. x  $\frac{1}{8}$  in., on a reference to the 'Guide,' the weights 5 cwt. 1 qr. 25.7 lb. and 2 cwt. 3 qrs. 17.6 lb. will be found; which, being divided by 2, will give the weight 4 cwt. 0 qr. 21.6 lb., the accuracy of which calculation is guaranteed, each one having been carried out to the thousandth part of a lb., and carefully proved." The book is very clearly printed, and will no doubt be a godsend to all who have to deal practically with iron.

*A Descriptive Handbook for the National Pictures in the Westminster Palace.* By T. J. Gullick. By Authority. (Bradbury, Evans, & Co.)—Mr. Gullick has written a very useful handbook for visitors to the Houses of Parliament who wish to study the mural paintings there with an intelligent eye, and not simply as an idle or merely sensuous gratification. The Introduction presents the reader with a brief, but

(for popular purposes) sufficing, account of fresco painting, its origin and nature, and the mechanical processes by which it is effected, down to the recent improvement invented by Dr. J. von Fuchs, of Munich, who found that, by projecting, in exceedingly fine, mist-like drops, a solution of silicate of potash over the wall-paintings, a sort of glassy surface is formed (though without glare or shine), which protects the picture from decay, being apparently uninfluenced by sun or damp, or, indeed, any species of weather. This application, which is called water-glass, was certainly much needed, as some of the earlier frescoes at the Westminster Palace have already faded to an alarming extent. In the body of the work (which is printed in the usual catalogue form, and sold for a shilling), Mr. Gullick conducts the visitor through the several rooms, describing the pictures very minutely, pointing out the chief incidents and characters represented, and, wherever necessary, giving such historical or legendary information as may be required for a full understanding of the subject. The book ought to be studied beforehand, and held in the hand during the visit. For reference before each picture, certain parts inclosed between heavy brackets are what should be particularly consulted. The arrangement altogether is exceedingly good, and the accounts of the pictures very satisfactory.

*Aunt Sally's Life.* By Mrs. Alfred Gatty. (Bell & Daldy.)—*The Flower of Grass: a Story for Children.* By E. S. G. S. (J. Nisbet & Co.)—*Songs of the Seasons, for my Children.* By Thomas Miller. (Tegg.)—All of these are books for young people. The first is a very pretty and sensible tale, relating, in autobiographical form, the life of a doll, from her gay and dainty youth to her sturdy old age as an Aunt Sally. The illustrations are clever, though the sick and dying little girl in one of them looks to us in exceedingly good health. "The Flower of Grass" is written in a highly religious strain—far too pretentiously so, in our estimation, to be fit for children. The illustrative etchings, by Mr. James Smetham, have something of grace and quaintness, but are too meagre and ascetic in feeling and execution. Mr. Miller's "Songs of the Seasons" are, we believe, a reprint, and the illustrations, by Birket Foster and Gilbert, are not new; but the whole makes a pretty little book in its brilliant arabesque wrapper, printed in gold and colours.

*On Water Supply to Villages and Farms.* By J. Bailey Denton, Mem. Inst. C. E. (Chapman & Hall.)—Mr. Denton's pamphlet contains the results of observations made by the writer during his practice as a draining engineer. In the course of his experiences he found that the rural parishes of England are often very badly supplied with water; and this has been particularly the case during the last two or three summers, when drought has prevailed to an unusual degree. The object of Mr. Denton's present production is "to show in what way rural districts may be supplied by the application of surface and drainage waters as they flow, or by the storage of those waters."

*Essays by an Old Man.* (Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.)—Three essays are contained in this little publication, which forms No. VIII. of the agreeable miscellany, "Odds and Ends." They are entitled "In Memoriam," "Vanitas Vanitatum," and "Friends." The first is somewhat weakly sentimental; the other two are at once shrewd and kindly.

*The Children's Hour* (Edinburgh: Johnstone, Hunter, & Co.;—London: Groombridge & Sons), is a new Scotch Magazine, designed, according to the cover, "for the young of the fold," and edited by "M. H., author of 'The Children of the Great King,' &c." The number for the current month is the first. We do not admire the style of writing, but the illustrations are rather good.

*Nice and its Climate* (W. J. Adams), and *Health Resorts of the South of France* (Same Publisher), are new editions, with corrections and enlargements, of two works by Dr. Edwin Lee.

#### LITERARY GOSSIP.

In August there died, in Philadelphia, a publisher of some note in America, Mr. Moses Thomas, who was apprenticed in early life to the firm which sprang from Benjamin Franklin's printing business in that city. Mr. Thomas, soon after he commenced business on his own account, purchased a periodical entitled *Select Reviews*, the name of which he changed to the *Analectic Magazine*, and persuaded Washington Irving to become its Editor. This was the beginning of a friendship which endured until the death of Mr. Irving, and the last time they met was at the Booksellers' Festival which took place at the New York Crystal Palace, September, 1855. Mr. Thomas held a great many letters of the late Washington Irving, and the following extract from one dated Liverpool, March 3, 1818, will be read with interest. It was written a short time after Mr. Irving's commercial misfortunes:—"I notice what you say on the subject of getting up an original work, but I am very squeamish on that point. Whatever my literary reputation may be worth, it is very dear to me, and I cannot bring myself to risk it by making up books for mere profit. I am fully persuaded that I could easily hurry up works for the market that would be saleable; but I'd rather labour with my hands, and live on a crust, than make thousands by such means. I am getting myself into habits of study and literary life, from which I have been long drawn away by worldly care and troubles. The arrangement I made with you was to enable me for awhile to live quietly in this way until I should get my mind in order, and put myself in proper habits and occupations. . . . I am at present studying German, as one of my modes of killing time, and exercising my mind; it may be of value to me in literary life." The arrangement he mentions was the forwarding from England to Mr. Thomas of the best new works for republication in America, at an annual stipend of \$1,000: it lasted but for one year. Mr. Thomas published the first American edition of the *Waverley Novels*, bringing out "Rob Roy," through Irving's exertions, contemporaneously with its publication in Edinburgh. He was also the first American publisher of Byron's "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers."



A correspondent, in directing our attention to a recent publication, "Fra Angelo, a Tragedy, in five acts, by William C. Russell, son of Henry Russell, the property of Walter Montgomery," wishes to know if it is true that slavery still exists in this country, as, from the title to the publication, one might certainly understand something of the kind.

Mr. George Catlin, the author of the well-known work on the North American Indians, is very much annoyed at the private circulation in this country of some printed copies of his account of certain curious religious ceremonies amongst the Mandan Indians. In a letter to Trübner's *Oriental Record*, he says:—"Allow me, through your journal, to correct an erroneous impression which the public would naturally have received from your complimentary notice in your last number of 'An Account of a Religious Ceremony of the Mandans,' purporting to have been published by me, and of which you say, 'Fifty copies only have been privately printed, and those only for a very select circle.' I have never either published or printed (nor given permission to any one to publish or to print) any other account of those ceremonies than that which was published in my large work on the North-American Indians, some years since, in London, and for which I obtained the copyright. The pamphlet you speak of as 'printed privately for a very select circle,' is a gross and mangled extract from my account of the Mandan Religious Ceremony, printed and circulated without my permission or knowledge; of which I have demanded the surrender of every copy printed; and for any reprint or circulation of the same I will prosecute."

From Guernsey comes a report that Victor Hugo is at present engaged in correcting the proof sheets of his volume of popular songs, entitled "Les Chansons des Rues et des Bois," which will be published simultaneously in Paris and Brussels.

The *Examiner*, in the conduct of which the late Mr. Dudley Costello had for twenty years past been concerned, gives some interesting biographical particulars relating to the deceased gentleman. Mr. Costello succeeded Thackeray, who, when young in his career, was sub-editor. Dudley was the son of Colonel James F. Costello, of an old Irish family in the county of Mayo (of the Barony of Costello), connected with the Frenches of Roscommon. On his mother's side he was descended from the great reformer, John Knox. His mother was a woman of great wit and genius, and much of his talent was derived from her. A great uncle of his, dubbed the Witty Councillor Costello, is well-known in Dublin annals. Mr. Costello was educated at Sandhurst, and, in due time, accompanied his regiment to various foreign stations—amongst others to Bermuda. Here strong literary tastes manifested themselves, and, it was said, he gave up all his leisure to drawing and literature. Whilst here, he issued an amateur newspaper regularly once a fortnight. It was neatly written, and circulated amongst friends as the *Grouper*. It is said that the staff of young officers whom he had appointed to assist him were sometimes idle and indifferent, and he filled up the whole paper himself, writing in different styles, on all the topics of conversation in the island. For several years, this amateur journalism continued to delight the world of Bermuda, the soldier-editor being at the time scarcely twenty. In after life, having quitted the army, Mr. Costello resided a long time in Paris along with his accomplished sister, the well-known authoress of many graceful works. For a time he was private draughtsman and amanuensis to the famous Baron Cuvier. After this, he devoted himself to copying illuminated MSS. in the Bibliothèque Royale, and it is said that he and his sister were the first who drew public attention to copying ancient illuminations, both in Paris and at the British Museum. On his return to London, he connected himself with the *Morning Herald*, the *Examiner*, and *Bentley's Miscellany*. When *Household Words* was started, Mr. Costello was one of the first contributors, and in that and *All the Year Round* articles from his pen have been very frequent. A work on Spain was planned by him a short time since, but it is understood that no progress beyond a few notes was made.

The Marquis de Bellune, author of the sensation romance, "De Mademoiselle Bertha," which was published in *La Revue de Paris* about twelve months since, has just surprised his friends and Paris literary circles by entering the Seminary of St. Sulpice. Not long ago one of his pieces had considerable success at the most difficult of all Paris theatres, the Odéon. The author is brother to a duke, and is but twenty-five years of age. His friends say, however, that he has long had an inclination for a monk's life, and only waited until he had attained the proper age.

The death of Dr. Charles Richardson, the learned lexicographer, is announced. The deceased, who expired on the 6th inst., was the author of "A New Dictionary of the English Language," and other philological works. He was born in July, 1775, and was therefore, at the time of his decease, ninety years of age. Bred to the law, he quitted it in early life for literary pursuits. His first production was "Illustrations of English Philology," 1805. Besides the great Dictionary, which will for ever bear testimony to its author's learning and industry, Dr. Richardson gave several smaller philological works to the world. The greater part of his "Dictionary," which, in authorities for the application of words, is the most copious work of its class in the English language, and which is held in high esteem in America as well as here, was originally published in the "Encyclopædia Metropolitana." The deceased author was a frequent contributor to *Notes and Queries* and the *Gentleman's Magazine*.

The second number of the *Irish Literary Inquirer*, or *Notes on Authors, Books, and Printing in Ireland*, Biographical, and Bibliographical, has appeared. It is conducted by Mr. John Power, solely with a view to a complete bibliography of Irish literature, which he has long had in hand. A portion of the *Inquirer* is set apart for notes and queries upon Irish historical subjects.

Mr. Paul Morphy, the celebrated chess-player, has returned to New York from Paris, and it is his present intention to prepare an annotated volume of his most successful chess games. Our informant says, it must not be inferred from this that Mr. Morphy has given up the practice of the law, as he prides himself more upon his proficiency in that than in chess. He was for some time a member of one of the

first law firms in New Orleans, and will shortly open an office in New York.

A series of fêtes in honour of the Buffon statue, which has just been erected at Montbard in France, are to follow the ceremony. Conspicuous amongst the amusements promised is a ladies' race, which appears to be a puzzle to some of the Paris papers. They say they do not see the connection between feminine betting and the study of natural history.

A new work by Rajah Brooke, the famous Governor of Sarawak, descriptive of ten years' residence in the province, is announced. It will contain numerous beautiful illustrations of views in Sarawak.

M. de Lamartine is shortly expected to arrive in Paris from Maçon to superintend the rehearsal of "Flor d'Aliza" at the Opéra Comique.

What the satire of "Hudibras" was to the great Civil War of the time of Charles I. and Oliver Cromwell, "Orpheus C. Kerr's Letters" have been to the recent American struggle. So attractive are they throughout the United States and Canada, that three volumes of them have obtained an immense sale there, and the author has become one of the most popular men in his own country. In many respects the "Letters" are not unlike the "Biglow Papers," but the model seems to have been a Transatlantic Don Quixote. Rozinante is transformed into the "Gothic steed, Pegasus"—Gothic from its bony and ill-fed appearance; Captain William Brown is the Don, and, instead of the pledge to protect the fair, as in the romances of old, we have him continually "taking the oath," which, as it is contained in a large bottle, and assumes the vulgar form of whisky, is not in any way a disagreeable operation to the captain. The author, we are informed, is a Mr. R. H. Newell, of New York. Some particulars concerning him, together with an introduction to the work, will be given in Mr. Hotten's English edition, to be published this day.

Mr. Alfred Austin, the author of "The Season, a Satire," promises a new novel very shortly. It will bear the title of "Won by a Head," and will be in the usual three-volume form. It seems that the stock of sayings or sentences in two and three words is gradually being exhausted by the numerous writers of stories who require telling titles for their works, for, unless we are very much mistaken, another novel with the title of "Won by a Neck" was issued a short time since.

The building of the new reading-room of the Imperial Library, in Paris, is rapidly approaching completion. It will be lighted by nine cupolas, decorated with landscapes, bas-reliefs, caryatides, &c.; and there will be tables for 1,000 or 1,200 readers. It is on the plan of the reading-room of the British Museum.

Messrs. MACMILLAN & Co. have issued a very extensive list of new books in the press, among which we find a volume to be entitled, "Ecce Homo! a Survey of the Life and Work of Jesus Christ;" also, "The Heavenly Father," by Ernest Neville, formerly Professor of Philosophy in the University of Geneva, translated by Henry Downton, English Chaplain at Geneva; "A Defence of Fundamental Truth," being a Review of the Philosophy of Mr. John Stuart Mill, by James McCosh, LL.D., Author of "Intuitions of the Mind," &c.; the second volume of "A Critical History of Christian Literature and Doctrine, from the Death of the Apostles to the Nicene Council," by James Donaldson; "The Bible Word-Book, a Glossary of Old English Bible-Words," by J. Eastwood and W. Aldis Wright; "The Economic Position of the British Labourer," by Henry Fawcett, Author of "A Manual of Political Economy;" also, by the same author, "Elementary Lessons in Political Economy;" "A System of Medicine," to be completed in 3 vols., 8vo., edited by J. Russell Reynolds, M.D.; "Lessons in Elementary Physiology," with numerous illustrations, by T. H. Huxley; "Popular Astronomy, a Series of Lectures delivered at Ipswich," by G. B. Airey, Astronomer-Royal; "Popular Epics of the Middle Ages, of the Norse-German and Carolingian Cycles," by John Malcolm Ludlow, 2 vols.; "Shakespeare's Sonnets," edited by Francis Turner Palgrave; "The Prince's Progress, and Other Poems," by Christina G. Rossetti; "Words from the Poets," selected for the use of parochial schools and libraries, by the author of "Rays of Sunlight for Dark Days;" "The Poetical Works of John Milton," edited by David Masson, and "The Poetical Works of William Cowper," edited by the Rev. W. Benham, forming part of the "Golden Treasury Series;" "Sir Thomas Browne's Religio-Medici, Urn Burial, and Christian Morals;" "The Song Book, Words and Tunes from the best Poets and Musicians," selected and arranged by John Hullah; "The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe," edited by J. W. Clarke (the latter five works forming part of the "Golden Treasury Series"); "Spiritual Philosophy, founded on the Teaching of the late Samuel Taylor Coleridge," by the late J. H. Green, F.R.S., D.C.L., edited, with memoir of the author's life, by John Simon; "Notes of the Christian Life," a selection of sermons preached by Henry Robert Reynolds, President of Cheshunt College; "Juvenal," with English notes and an index, a new and revised edition, by John E. B. Mayor; "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," a tale for children, by Lewis Carroll, with illustrations by John Tenniel; and numerous other works already announced.

Messrs. CHAPMAN & HALL announce "The World before the Deluge," by Louis Figuier, with 25 ideal landscapes of the Ancient World, designed by Rivu, and 208 figures of animals, plants, and other fossil remains, &c., translated from the fourth French edition; the third and fourth volumes of the "History of the Commonwealth of Florence, from the Earliest Independence of the Commune to the Fall of the Republic in 1531," by Thomas Adolphus Trollope; "Robert Dalby and His World of Troubles, being the Early Days of a Connoisseur," 1 vol.; "The Brothers," by Miss Anna Drury, Author of "Misrepresentation," &c., 2 vols.; and two new volumes of the cheap and uniform edition of the works of Charles Dickens, the one comprising the series of papers originally contributed to *Household Words*, and entitled "The Uncommercial Traveller," and the other "Hard Times" and "Pictures from Italy."

Messrs. BELL & DALDY will publish during the forthcoming season, a handsome quarto edition of Miss A. Procter's Poems, with numerous



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Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT announce in their list of works in preparation:—"The Memoirs and Correspondence of Field Marshal Viscount Combermere;" the second and concluding volume of Miss Meteyard's "Life of Josiah Wedgwood," with 300 illustrations; "From Cadet to Colonel; the Record of a Life of Active Service," by Major-General Sir Thomas Seaton; "Religious Life on the Continent," by Mrs. Oliphant; the third and fourth volumes of the Hon. Grantley Berkeley's "Life and Recollections;" "Sport and Sportsmen," by Charles Stretton, Esq.; "Social Life in Florence," by Count Arrivabene. Among the same publishers' forthcoming new novels are "Agnes," by Mrs. Oliphant; "A Noble Life," by the Author of "John Halifax;" "Hester's Sacrifice," by the Author of "St. Olaves;" "Fides, or the Beauty of Mayence," by Sir Lascelles Wrayall, Bart.; "Chronicles of Dartmoor," by Mrs. Marsh; "The Clyffards of Clyffe," and works by the Hon. Mrs. Norton, the Rev. J. M. Belieu, Mark Lemon, Walter Thornbury, the Author of "No Church," the Author of "Grandmother's Money," &c.

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